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SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

JOURNAL

OF

PROCEEDINGS AND
ADDRESSES

OF THE

FOURTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

HELD AT

ATLANTA, GEORGIA,

DECEMBER 30th and 31st 1903, and JANUARY 1st 1904.

1903-1904
1904

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION

FOR SALE BY THE

SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION

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CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Place	President	Date
I. Morehead City	J. H. Shinn	} July, 1890
Montgomery	S. Palmer	
II. Lookout Mountain	J. H. Shinn	July, 1891
III. Atlanta	S. Palmer	July, 1892
IV. Louisville	W. F. Slaton	July, 1893
V. Galveston	W. H. Bartholomew	Dec., 1894
VI. Hot Springs	J. R. Preston	Dec., 1895
VII. Mobile	J. H. Phillips	Dec., 1896
VIII. New Orleans	Geo. J. Ramsey	Dec., 1898
IX. Memphis	Junius Jordon	Dec., 1899
X. Richmond	R. B. Fulton	Dec., 1900
XI. Columbia	G. R. Glenn	Dec., 1901
XII. Chattanooga	W. N. Sheats	July, 1902
XIII. Asheville	J. W. Nicholson	June-July 1903
XIV. Atlanta	F. P. Venable	Dec., 1903-Jan., 1904

¹⁸⁹⁷There was no meeting of the Association in 1897, because of yellow fever at New Orleans, which city had been selected as the place of meeting.

SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OFFICERS FOR 1903-1904.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

President—Dr. Francis P. Venable, Chapel Hill, N. C.
Vice-President—Col. J. W. Nicholson, Baton Rouge, La.
Treasurer—Supt. S. H. Edmunds, Sumter, S. C.
Secretary—Supt. Richard J. Tighe, Asheville, N. C.

DEPARTMENTS.

SUPERINTENDENCE.

President—Supt. J. C. Compton, Leesburg, Fla.
Vice-President—Supt. Geo. D. Goddard, Moultrie, Ga.
Secretary—Prin. Thomas B. Hamby, Asheville, N. C.

CHILD STUDY.

President—Prof. H. E. Bierly, Tallahassee, Fla.
Vice-President—Prin. Clem Hampton, Gainesville, Fla.
Secretary—Prof. Celestia S. Parrish, Athens, Ga.

HIGHER EDUCATION.

President—Chancellor R. B. Fulton, University of Mississippi.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

President—Pres. C. C. Thach, Auburn, Ala.

NORMAL INSTRUCTION.

President—Prof. P. P. Claxton, Knoxville, Tenn.
Secretary—Prof. M. M. Parks, Milledgeville, Ga.

STATE DIRECTORS.

Alabama.....	I. W. HILL.....	Gadsden
Arkansas.....	J. J. DOYNE.....	Little Rock
Florida.....	J. W. WIDEMAN	Gainesville
Georgia.....	W. M. SLATON.....	Atlanta
Kentucky	L. McCARTNEY.....	Hopkinsville
Louisiana.....	WARREN EASTON.....	New Orleans
Maryland.....	ALEXANDER CHAPLAIN.....	Easton
Mississippi.....	J. S. HUDSON.....	Oxford
Missouri.....	JOHN COLLINS.....	St. Louis
North Carolina	D. MATT THOMPSON.....	Statesville
South Carolina	J. W. THOMPSON.....	Rock Hill
Tennessee.....	MORGAN C. FITZPATRICK.....	Nashville
Texas	W. W. BARNETT.....	Houston
Virginia.....	ROBT. FRAZIER.....	Warrenton
West Virginia.....	GEO. S. LAIDLEY	Charleston

STATE MANAGERS.

Alabama.....	J. D. HUMPHREY.....	Huntsville
Arkansas	JUNIUS JORDAN.....	Fayetteville
Florida	MISS CLEM HAMPTON.....	Gainesville
Georgia.....	J. S. STEWART.....	Dahlonaga
Kentucky	J. E. SNYDER.....	Paducah
Louisiana.....	B. C. CALDWELL.....	Natchitoches
Maryland.....	W. C. A. HUMMEL.....	Baltimore
Mississippi.....	W. P. DOBBINS.....	Corinth
Missouri.....	W. H. MARTIN.....	Kansas City
North Carolina.....	G. H. CROWELL.....	High Point
South Carolina.....	THOMAS C. WALTON.....	Anderson
Tennessee.....	S. A. MYNDERS.....	Jackson
Texas	J. E. BLAIR	Denison
Virginia.....	C. L. CROW.....	Lexington
West Virginia.....	WILSON M. FOULK.....	Piedmont

LOCAL COMMITTEES.

Executive—W. F. Slaton, Chairman; E. P. Burns, Secretary; W. H. Gaines, L. M. Landrum, W. B. Merritt, W. J. Northern, G. R. Glenn, M. L. Brittain. Lyman Hall, R. J. Guinn, Hoke Smith, L. Z. Rosser, H. Douglas.

Reception and Entertainment—W. M. Slaton, Chairman, Principal Boys' High School; Dr. Lyman Hall, President of Georgia School of Technology; W. F. Slaton, Superintendent of Schools of Atlanta; L. M. Landrum, Assistant Superintendent; Hamilton Douglas, President of Board of Education; Luther Z. Rosser, Vice-President of Board of Education; Hon. E. P. Howell, Mayor and Member of Board of Education; Dr. L. P. Stephens, Member of Board of Education; J. E. Warren, Councilman and Member of Board of Education; A. C. Turner, Member of Board of Education; E. P. Burns, Member of Board of Education; W. S. Brown, Member of Board of Education; Hon. Hoke Smith; Miss Nettie Sergeant, Principal Girls' High School.

Membership and Badges—W. B. Merritt, Chairman.

Bureau of Information—Chairman and Secretary of Executive Committee.

TREASURER'S REPORT
—OF THE—
SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

January 1, 1904.

RECEIPTS:

1903—July 25—	R. J. Tighe, Secretary.....	\$358.23	
Dec. 5	" " " "	472.45	
1904 Jan. 1	" " " "	9.32	\$840.00

DISBURSEMENTS:

1904—Jan. 1—	Stenography	\$ 25.00	
" "	President's expenses.....	35.00	
" "	Secretary's "	14.32	
" "	Treasurer's "	16.05	
	Printing and Postage.....	10.00	
Printing Proceedings Asheville Meeting...	166.82	\$267.19	
Balance Jan. 1, 1904.....			\$572.81

Respectfully submitted,

S. H. EDMUNDS,
Treasurer Southern Educational Association.

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
Fourteenth Annual Meeting
OF THE
SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

ATLANTA, GA., DECEMBER 30 AND 31, 1903,
JANUARY 1, 1904.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

First Baptist Church — Wednesday, December 30, 9 p. m.

The Convention was called to order by President Francis P. Venable.

Dr. W. W. Landrum, pastor of the First Baptist Church, invoked the divine blessing upon the meeting.

Addresses of welcome were made by Governor J. M. Terrell, of Georgia, Mayor Evan P. Howell, of Atlanta, and John Temple Graves.

The response was made by Dr. Edwin M. Poteat, president of Furman University, Greenville, S. C.

The President stated that Superintendent Junius Jordan, who was to have responded also to the addresses of welcome, was detained at home by illness.

The President of the Association then delivered the annual address.

The Secretary urged all delegates to register in order that each person who had paid the \$2.00 membership fee might receive the annual volume of the proceedings.

The Secretary made the following announcements: The Departments of Higher Education, Industrial Education, Superintendence, and Child Study, will be held tomorrow

afternoon in the First Baptist Church, and the Department of Normal Instruction in the assembly room of the Piedmont Hotel.

The President urged prompt attendance at the morning session tomorrow.

The meeting adjourned.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

First Baptist Church — Thursday, December 31, 9 a. m.

The meeting was called to order by the President shortly after 9 o'clock.

Dr. Charles D. McIver, of Greensboro, N. C., read a paper on "Local Taxation."

Superintendent H. L. Whitfield, of Mississippi, who was to have spoken on this subject, being absent, the President called upon Prof. P. P. Claxton, of the University of Tennessee.

In response to the President's call for a general discussion of the subject of local taxation, Superintendent J. M. Guilliams, of the East Florida Seminary, spoke of local taxation in Florida.

The next subject discussed was "Attendance on Schools." Superintendents Mynders and Hill being absent, the subject was discussed by Superintendent J. H. Phillips, of Birmingham, Ala., and Superintendent Wade H. Wood, of Sandersville, Ga.

President Lyman Hall, of the Georgia School of Technology, invited the Association to visit the school tomorrow at the close of the session. Superintendent W. F. Slaton, of Atlanta, moved that the Association accept the invitation. Carried.

Superintendent E. H. Marks, of Louisville, Ky., at this point urged that the South turn out in large numbers to the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, which meets in Atlanta

February 23-25. Superintendent W. F. Slaton, of Atlanta, also spoke of the importance of this meeting to the South.

Joseph S. Stewart, of Athens, Ga., delivered an address on "Rural Libraries in the Public Schools."

This subject was discussed by Prin. W. G. Blake, of Spartanburg, S. C.; President Venable; and Miss Agnes Morris, of Louisiana.

In the absence of Capt. C. E. Vawter, of Miller Manual Training School, Virginia, Miss Elizabeth M. Getz, of Charleston, S. C., led in the discussion on "Manual Training in the Public Schools." She was followed by E. E. Utterback, Supervisor of Manual Training in the Atlanta Public Schools.

The morning session adjourned.

First Baptist Church — Thursday, December 31, 8:30 p. m.

The President read a telegram from the Texas State Teachers' Association offering congratulations and the hope that the Southern Educational Association would be perpetuated. The Secretary was directed to send an appropriate answer to this.

The President then read an invitation from Miss Anne Wallace, librarian of the Carnegie Library, to the members of the Convention, to visit the library; also an invitation to visit the Agnes Scott Institute, at Decatur.

An invitation having been extended through President Lyman Hall, and accepted, to visit the Georgia School of Technology, the President requested prompt attendance in order that the program, which was a very lengthy and important one, might be concluded before the time set for adjournment.

The President appointed the following nominating committee for the purpose of nominating officials of the Association for the ensuing term: Principal J. W. Gaines, of South Carolina; Prof. C. A. Smith, of North Carolina; Superintendent W. F. Slaton, of Georgia; Prof. Harlan Updegraff, of Maryland; Prof. P. P. Claxton, of Tennessee;

Superintendent J. C. Compton, of Florida; President R. E. Blackwell, of Virginia; President C. C. Thach, of Alabama; Superintendent E. H. Mark, of Kentucky; Chancellor R. B. Fulton, of Mississippi, Chairman.

He stated his regret at being unable to appoint a representative from every Southern State, due to the fact that many had failed to register, and the rolls were consequently very incomplete. The committee was instructed to report at the business meeting tomorrow.

The order of business for the evening session was reversed, and instead of the address of Hon. Hoke Smith, that of Chancellor Walter B. Hill, of the University of Georgia, on the subject of "Public Aid to Education in the South," came first.

Miss Celestia S. Parish, of Athens, Ga., read a paper on "The Education of Women in the South."

The Hon. Hoke Smith, of Atlanta, Ga., delivered an address on "George Peabody and the Work of the Peabody Fund."

At the conclusion of Mr. Smith's address the President again read the names of the nominating committee, and named Chancellor Fulton as Chairman. The Committee was directed to meet at once and report at the business meeting tomorrow.

The session then adjourned.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

First Baptist Church — Friday, January 1, 9 a. m.

The meeting was called to order by the President.

Superintendent E. H. Mark, of Louisville, Ky., delivered an address on "High Schools in the South." He was followed by Commissioner W. B. Merritt, of Georgia, on the same subject. The subject was further discussed by Principal J. W. Gaines, of Hartsville, S. C.

The President discussed briefly the status of high school education in North Carolina.

President Venable announced that it was now time for the business meeting.

The following directors were announced for the ensuing year: Maryland, Harlan Updegraff; Virginia, E. C. Glass; West Virginia, D. B. Purinton; Kentucky, E. H. Mark; Tennessee, Claude J. Bell; North Carolina, W. C. A. Hammel; South Carolina, S. H. Edmunds; Florida, Miss Clem Hampton; Georgia, W. B. Merritt; Alabama, J. H. Phillips; Louisiana, J. E. Keeney; Arkansas, Junius Jordan; Texas, T. G. Harris; Mississippi, H. L. Whitfield.

The following report was submitted by the Committee on Nominations:

To the Southern Educational Association:

Your Committee on Nominations respectfully make the following report. We nominate as officers for the year immediately following:

For President — Chancellor Walter B. Hill, of the University of Georgia.

For Vice-President — President Francis P. Venable, of the University of North Carolina.

For Treasurer — E. P. Burns, Member Board of Education, Atlanta.

For Secretary — Superintendent R. J. Tighe, Asheville, N. C.

Respectfully,

R. B. FULTON. *Chairman.*

On motion of W. F. Slaton the report of the Committee on Nominations was unanimously adopted.

Supt. S. H. Edmunds: Mr. President, it seems that since we have come to Atlanta we have acquired new life and vigor, and there is no longer any danger of attending, as we have heard for the last year or two, the funeral of the Southern Educational Association. It has seemed to me we have been running too long — I do not know how

many years — without any constitution, that is, a written constitution, but we have none at all, or by-laws. It seems to me it would be wise to appoint a committee on constitution and by-laws at this meeting and that it be instructed to report at the next meeting so that we may better transact business matters, because our long life is now assured.

A Member: I make a motion to that effect.

Principal J. W. Gaines: At the meeting in Chattanooga we adopted a constitution and it was turned over to the Secretary. If you can find the Secretary you can find the constitution.

The President: We have not been able even to get a report or any papers presented at that meeting.

Dr. G. R. Glenn: I think the gentleman is correct that we ought to have a constitution and by-laws, and I think if the Secretary will write to Superintendent Ramsey, formerly of Louisiana — I think he is now at Bristol, Dr. G. J. Ramsey — you will get information concerning the papers.

A Member: Suppose we call upon this committee to find the constitution and by-laws, and if they can not find them let them make them.

The motion being seconded and carried, the Committee was instructed to act in accordance therewith.

The Secretary announced that the Asheville volume of proceedings was now printed and that it would be mailed to members during the coming two weeks.

Superintendent J. C. Compton, of Florida, then extended an invitation to the Association to hold its next convention at Jacksonville, Florida, urging the claims of Florida and the numerous points of interest that can be easily reached. The invitation was warmly seconded by Prof. J. M. Williams, of East Florida Seminary.

Prof. J. H. Phillips extended an invitation on behalf of his city — Birmingham, Alabama.

The President announced that the invitations were in

the hands of the Executive Committee for action and that the matter would be settled by them.

The next subject was "College Requirements in English." The first speaker was Prof. Chas. W. Kent, of the University of Virginia.

The next speaker on "College Requirements in English" was Prof. C. A. Smith, of the University of North Carolina.

Prof. W. L. Weber, of Emory College, Georgia, continued this discussion.

"The Call for More College-Bred Men" was the subject of a paper read by President John W. Abercrombie, of the University of Alabama.

The President: At the meeting of this Association in Asheville, a committee was appointed to consider the future of the Association, whether it should continue to exist or not. We were regarded as a committee to attend the funeral. During my absence I was chosen funeral director and I put on this program a place for the funeral ceremonies, at the same time making up my mind that there should be no funeral. I have a positive objection to this sort of ceremonies, when I must attend. I do not care to attend any more than I am forced to do. If I had thought there was going to be a funeral here this morning, I would not have invited these good people of Atlanta. However, the occasion has passed and I do not propose to have any discussion as to whether we are going to live or not. I simply ask you each and every one to do your whole duty in this matter, and to stand as strong advocates of this Association and see that it does not fall of its own motion. I feel it has a work to do in the South and a great work; that we need it, and that we can not get along without it.

I have not time for giving you all of my reasons for thinking this, but I believe it very firmly and I ask you, then, that no discussion be indulged in. We shall have no funeral but we will live and we will have a first-class constitution. I will appoint the following committee as the Committee

of Investigation, to see if they can find the old constitution, or the committee who will build a new one and report it to the next meeting: Superintendent J. H. Phillips; Chancellor R. B. Fulton, of Mississippi; President Geo. H. Denny, of Washington and Lee University; Chancellor W. B. Hill, the new President; and Secretary R. J. Tighe, with Chancellor Hill, Chairman.

The Secretary then announced the department meetings, after which the Convention adjourned until 8 p. m.

Shortly after adjournment the members took the street cars and visited the Georgia School of Technology. After seeing the buildings and grounds the visitors were invited to the dining hall where New Year refreshments were served. Dr. Hall proved himself a genial and model host.

First Baptist Church — Friday, January 1, 8 p. m.

The Convention was called to order by the President.

Prof. C. Alphonso Smith, of the University of North Carolina, addressed the meeting on "Literature in the South."

Dr. W. T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education, read a paper on "Secondary Education in the South."

Dr. Edgar Gardner Murphy, of the Southern Educational Board, addressed the meeting on "The Relation of the Southern College to the Public Schools."

The Committee on Resolutions read the following report, which was unanimously adopted by the Convention:

To the Southern Educational Association:

Your Committee on Resolutions beg leave to report, and to recommend the adoption of the following:

WHEREAS, The sphere and work of the Southern Educational Association are but imperfectly known by the public, and

WHEREAS, its aims and purposes have never been definitely outlined or concisely published:

Be it Resolved, (1) That a committee of three be appointed by the chair, whose duty shall be to formulate the aims and purposes of

the Association, and to outline a platform of principles and a definite policy of action, for the guidance of its membership and the information of the public.

(2) That the President of the Association is requested to give place to the report of this committee on the program of the next meeting of the Association.

Report of Committee on Resolutions.

Resolved, That the sincere thanks of the Southern Educational Association are due and are hereby tendered to the good people of the city of Atlanta, whose hospitality and intelligent interest in our work have contributed largely to the success of the meetings of the Association.

We express specially our grateful appreciation of the kindness shown by the managers of the railroads and hotels, who have made concessions in rates; by the trustees of the First Baptist Church in affording the use of its building for meetings; and by the members of the local committees, whose efforts have provided all needed facilities for the work of the Association.

Respectfully submitted,

WM. L. PRATHER,
J. H. PHILLIPS,
R. B. FULTON,

Committee.

The President appointed the following Committee on the Aims and Purposes of the Southern Educational Association: Chancellor R. B. Fulton, Chairman; Superintendent J. H. Phillips; President Charles D. McIver.

The President: We have reached the conclusion of a very pleasant, profitable and successful meeting; I think I may say that, and I pronounce this, the Fourteenth Annual Session of the Southern Educational Association, ended.

The meeting adjourned.

RICHARD J. TIGHE,
Secretary Southern Educational Association.

INVOCATION.

DR. W. W. LANDRUM.

Almighty and ever merciful God, it is in thee that we live and have our being. Thou art the source of all the blessings that we enjoy. We thank thee for what thou art, and for all the disclosures of thy character. Thou hast made in nature a providence in human history from thine own word, and above all in Jesus Christ, thine only begotten Son, our Saviour. We thank thee, our Father, for his love, which is as comprehensive as the human race, which is freer to us than the air, and which is equally necessary to our spiritual existence. We thank thee for that love which embraces all humanity and which has adapted provisions of grace full of our necessities, individual and domestic—social and national and world-wide. We thank thee, our Father, for endowing us with some capacity to know thee and to enter into sympathy with thy great plan for the salvation and for the enlightenment of all those who are made in thine image, and endowed with the glories of immortality. We thank thee, our Father, for the giving of thy servants who now enter into conference with one another concerning those high matters of their noble vocation. We come to ask that thou, who art the source of all enlightenment, will be with thy servants who shall proceed with these deliberations, and with all who shall participate in the discussion of such topics as shall be considered. We pray thee that they may see eye to eye, and understand better how they may discharge the great duty which thou in thy providence hast devolved upon them. We pray thee that all may speak their heartiest convictions fearlessly, but candidly and kindly, and that all who are met here are without passion or prejudice, but with the sort of receptivity which marks them as those who hunger after the truth. We commit and commend unto thee, our Father, all the institutions of learning in our Southland here represented; that they may be entrenched in the affections of our people; we pray that they may receive larger and larger material support; that they may have better endowment and equipment and a larger sphere of usefulness and increasing numbers of ingenuous youth, who shall repair to their halls for instruction. We pray, our Father, for the uplifting of all our people, and that they shall consider the Christ as their ideal of unselfish service to God and to man. O come, thou spirit of the living God, we implore thee, and make this meeting become marked in the history of their service. May all who come within these walls feel that they are the servants of the Most High God, and that they are encouraged in such work as invokes the blessing of

God, as well as elicit the high type of all their powers for the weal of mankind. Forgive us, our Father, we beseech thee, all, even our sins. Help us, as we meet at the closing of an old year, to leave behind all our littlenesses, our prejudices, our infirmities—whatever shall tend to make narrow and unworthy the lives that thou hast given to us—and from this meeting may we look out to the New Year with hope, with zeal, with consecration; with the expectation of attempting great things for thee, and of receiving great blessings from thee as we walk in obedience to thy commandments and ordinances. Bestow upon us, Almighty God, our Father, every blessing that we need, and may all who are in authority over us, all who belong to the executive, the legislative and the judicial departments of our state governments, and national government be the servants of the Most High God, actuated by the most high patriotism.

And now, Father, we commit and commend this meeting into thy hands. Honor thyself, our Father, by making it a meeting of great and permanent usefulness; and when thou hast wrought thy righteous will in us and by us and through us, in the world, receive us and all for whom we ought to pray into that realm where we shall all know the truth in all its preciousness and power, and enter into the experiences that are beyond the power of human thought. All of which, our Father, we ask, with the forgiveness of our sins, through riches of grace in Christ Jesus, our Lord. Amen.

FIRST ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

HON. J. M. TERRELL, GOVERNOR OF GEORGIA.

Mr. President and Members of the Southern Educational Association:

I esteem it an honor and a pleasure to welcome to this State an Association composed of so many distinguished educators. We are glad to have you with us. We want to know you. We want you to become acquainted with us. We want you to know the wonderful material resources of this State, and of our great institutions, so that when you return to your homes you will tell your friends about them.

Every true Georgian feels toward his State as a live, up-to-date business man feels toward his business. He wants to advertise it, and he is not afraid of the searchlight of competition. We are grateful for the wonderful resources with which a kind Providence has endowed us — resources which have won for us the

name of Empire State of the South. We are proud of the push and vim of our citizenry, which is demonstrated in all the walks of life throughout the State; but we are prouder still of the interest which the people of this State feel in every institution that looks to the upbuilding of our people. This feeling we get by inheritance from a noble ancestry, for it was within this State that public education first received recognition in a written constitution. In February, 1777, but a few months after the signing of the Declaration of Independence, our noble ancestors met for the purpose of framing our first written constitution; and in a section of that constitution it was prescribed that schools shall be erected in each county and supported at the general expense of the State. Other states may have advanced farther towards the accomplishment of the ideal system of public education, but the Empire State of the South pointed the finger in the direction which civilization from that day to this has sought and followed. (Applause.)

In 1784, the year in which the treaty of peace with the mother country was signed, our lawmakers met for the purpose of passing laws under which the people in this new State, and in this new Republic, were to live, and amongst the first acts passed by that Legislature was one appropriating forty thousand acres of land to the endowment of a State University. In those days it was customary to commence all of the acts with preambles, reciting the motives that the legislators had in mind in enacting such laws; and the preamble of that appropriating act is in the following language:

“WHEREAS, The encouragement of religion and learning is an object of great importance to any community, and must tend to the prosperity and advantage of the same, forty thousand acres of the choicest lands in this State are hereby appropriated for the purpose of endowing a University.”

A high and noble motive actuated these wise men. The next year, 1785, the General Assembly chartered our State University, and for over a hundred years that noble institution has stood as a beacon whose rays have blessed the entire State. It was Georgia who first honored woman's mind by chartering a female college for her higher education.

Georgia led all her sister Southern States in the establishment of a school of technology; and during the last twenty years that great institution has sent out broadcast over this State, and the South, hundreds of young men fully equipped to discharge all the duties in the advancing march of civilization and progress. A few

years after the establishment of the School of Technology, our lawmakers, in deference to the wishes of the people, and in response to that feeling which has ever actuated Georgians to help those who evince a willingness to help themselves, established the Girl's Normal and Industrial School at Milledgeville, which institution has for the last twelve years prepared and fitted hundreds of Georgia's fair daughters for that high and noble position of being able to take care of themselves. A few years thereafter, our lawmakers took another wise step in educational matters, and established the Normal School at Athens, at which hundreds of noble men and women are being taught the science of teaching, and are being better prepared to discharge the duties of their high calling.

My friends, the liberality of our people has not all been expended upon these great institutions; but the wish of the people, as expressed by acts of our lawmakers, not only looks to the higher education of our people, but it looks to the education of every boy and girl within the confines of the State of Georgia; and by wise amendments to our common school system, and by liberal appropriations to the support of our common schools, we have in this State five months of common schools free to every child within the State. And when the people of Georgia, next October, ratify, as they are sure to do, the amendment to our constitution, which was proposed by our Legislature at its last session, it will be within the power of every community throughout the State, by the levy of a small local tax, to have a Long Term Public School [Applause], and with a system providing for eight or nine months of common schools and our system of colleges and schools for higher education, Georgia will truly be a model State in all educational matters.

Now, my friends, while I extend to each and all of you a most hearty welcome, I want you, when you shall have finished your labors and are preparing to return to your homes, to know and feel that you have a most cordial invitation to stay with us and be one of us. [Prolonged applause.]

SECOND ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

HON. EVAN P. HOWELL, MAYOR OF ATLANTA.

Mr. President, and Delegates to the Southern Educational Association:

It is my pleasant duty to extend to you a welcome to this city, and it is not the ordinary functional duty of a mayor when I say

to you that I am glad you are here. These conventions that come to our city are a great help to the city, and we hope we will give you a welcome that will make you satisfied with the city, as we are with your presence.

I am not going to make a speech. My friends here will all tell you that it does not take me long to say what I have to say. I think one of the greatest compliments I ever got was from a negro driver I had when I used to make a good many speeches. While I was speaking, on one occasion, he got hold of some corn whiskey and when I got in the carriage he was very complimentary, of course. He says, "Boss, I just likes to hear you speak." I thanked him, but I asked the reason. He says, "It don't take you long to tell what you know." I have always found that that was the best compliment I ever received and the most truthful.

This convention that has assembled here I consider one of the most important that could come to Atlanta. It is the Southern Educational Association, an association of the brightest intellects in the South. We have not in the past had as many of these conventions as we ought to have, although you have been in existence for fourteen years, so your presiding officer tells me; however, I am very much gratified at your meeting here this year. I do not mean to say by that that we are behind any nation of people in the world in education. We are making a successful advancement in that line and we are getting some of the greatest conventions in the country to hold their meetings here. It is exactly what makes this city grow. It is what makes our State and what makes other states.

We have a duty to perform—I mean you have. I just make mention of this to you, although I do not think it is necessary from the faces I see before me. We all have a duty, and that is the duty of educating our children. I can recollect, and I am not a spring chicken, either, when education was not so popular in the State of Georgia as it is now, even though we spent forty thousand acres of ground in building a university. [Laughter.] I recollect one ambitious boy:—Over half a century ago there lived in the neighborhood where I was, an old man who had scuffled hard to make money, and that was his great idea, and that is the only idea of a great many people today. They do not seem to understand that there are other things to do besides make money. This old fellow had a boy that was an exceedingly bright boy. He went to the same old country log schoolhouse that I did, but his mother had great expectations. She was a woman who was very ambitious, and wanted her boy sent to college. She had never been to one herself, but had seen a man who had been to college, and she wanted her boy to go to college; and as it is in all well regulated

houses, she prevailed at last. You know, when a woman makes up her mind, she finally gets what she wants. [Applause.] I am only speaking for women now. The old man never was exactly reconciled to the matter, but he permitted the boy to go. The boy went off, and was a bright fellow, and entered the Junior class at the university of the State. Of course his mother wrote to him—the old man could not write and did not write—and after a while John came back. He got home at night, and the next morning at breakfast his mother had a couple of very little chickens on a dish before the old man. John was a little late in coming down, and that irritated the old man somewhat, so that when he sat down he began to inquire of John about what he had learned at college. He told him a whole list of things he had studied, and finally closed by saying that he was studying logic. “Logic,” says his father, “What is that?” John says, “That is the art of reasoning.” The old man did not know any more than he did before, so he says again, “What is that?” John says, “I will demonstrate it.” He picked up his knife and said, “How many chickens on that dish, father?” His father said, “two.” “Well,” says John, “I can prove by logic that there are three there.” “Let me see you do it,” says his father. “Well,” says John, “that is one?” “Yes.” “That is two?” “Yes.” “Well, don’t two and one make three?” “Well, I declare,” says his father, “college has done you a heap of good. Old lady, I will give you one, I will take the other, and John can eat the third.” [Laughter.] “He has got so smart at college I think he can live on his learning.”

Education was not popular with the old man, and he never did get quite satisfied, but I want to state to you that John got to be one of the smartest men in the State, and used his logic to get fame.

Sometimes I think education is a good deal like the illustration in the Bible about the man on the wayside (if I am incorrect I hope Brother Landrum won’t take offense) who was sowing seed; some falls in rocky places and comes up, and some withers away and is no good to the man who has it or to anyone else; some falls among the thorns and thistles, and that is the evil people who are educated, and they come up and are choked out and don’t do the public any good; but some falls on good ground and it makes a good crop—you can find out how much by reading the Bible yourself. [Laughter.] I just simply want you to understand it; I do not tell you the whole tale, so that you will read the Bible and find out the remainder.

Education is very much that way, and you all know it. It is the seed of education that falls in good ground that makes this old world better, purer and more useful. Why, we are today

teaching children things that grown men did not know a few centuries ago, and see what they have done. See what has been done in the mere matter of transportation. There is not a man in this audience that cannot go from here to New York in more style and grandeur than the Queen of England could when Queen Elizabeth reigned. It is education that is back of all the progress in all this country; that is the business of education, and that is the business you people are engaged in. So I say, God speed you, because the good you will accomplish here will go all over the country. One reason why education has been so retarded so long, was that God was waiting for the people to become good enough so that they will use education for good purposes. You go to the heathen land today: it is just like it was when God created the world except that there are more heathens there; that shows civilization; it shows we are doing something for our neighbor, still none of us love our neighbor as well as we love ourselves, but by spreading education it will come sooner, and that is the way one old fellow was about the star. When they told him a fixed star was ten times bigger than the world, and it was so many millions of miles further away, he said, "Well, it has got a darn poor way of showing it." Our people are coming now to love one another better than the used to, and I don't believe it will be possible for any State in this Union to secede because we are getting so good, and getting better. We feel better toward one another and it is the result of education. Some of us have not got enough to keep us from doing things we ought not to do, but it is growing, and the more we prosper the school the more religion will extend over this country and hasten that happy day when we shall love our neighbor as we do ourselves. Then the millennium will come. That is the way it is coming. It has got to come through you as well as the ministers of the gospel, to this grand and glorious country.

In this city we pay as much attention to education and sometimes more, than we do to religion. I do not think that is exactly right. I think they ought to go hand in hand. The schools have helped us to build up this great city. We have children here who in other localities would not have the opportunity of being educated, and we have more good lady teachers in the city of Atlanta than any other city of its size in the world. They are doing their work well. We have to have some men to boss over them, but I do not know how long that will last, but if the men don't progress very fast from now on, the ladies will get ahead of them. I care a great deal for them. A good deal of the religious education I have got I got from a woman, and she is my wife. Since I have been in contact with the public schools this past year, I have found

out how patient and good these women have been to the poor as well as rich children of this city. It is not usually considered fashionable to send children to public schools, but in this city it is different, because the public schools are the best we have got. We are building some new schoolhouses now, and are not going to stop until every child in this city will be able to get a seat, and not for five months, either. They don't even take Christmas holidays here. When I went to school it always took about a month to catch up with the Christmas holidays; this time they don't seem to have any. They won't have a Christmas vacation this year. All people have to rest—even people who are educated, sometimes.

Now, I want to say to you that it is with great pleasure I meet you in this old church. Possibly never again will it occur, but we have had some grand conventions here, right in the walls of this building was held the National Young Men's Christian Association, one of the grandest conventions that ever came to this city, and right in these pews here was a resolve made that we would build us a house for the Young Men's Christian Association, and it is an accomplished fact. It is one of our best buildings, and the good it has done is only equaled by the churches we have. I say I hope some good results will come from your presence. Always when good people come together to determine what is right, good comes from it. I am glad you met here, and I want to welcome you and extend to you the hand of fellowship, and tell you that whatever I can do to make your meeting valuable and pleasant, I will do from the bottom of my heart. [Applause.]

THIRD ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

HON. JOHN TEMPLE GRAVES, ATLANTA, GA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the Southern Educational Association:

I catch from the lips of the Governor of Georgia tonight a sentiment that fills my heart with respect and admiration for the State of Georgia. I catch from the lips of the mayor of Atlanta a sentiment that fills me with the joy of living, and the glory of this Twentieth Century city of Atlanta; and I catch from the inspiration of your presence here tonight the suggestion that the city of Atlanta, that the State of Georgia, and that the press of Georgia confront tonight the most important, representative, and the most

responsible convention that has convened within the city limits during the present year, and perhaps within the past decade. I do not know that I strain comparison when I say that tonight, looking back upon all the conventions that have met here, combined; all the organizations of men and women engaged in the active work of life, that we have never in our history confronted, so far as one section is concerned, any body of men who represented more, both to our present and to our future, and who characterized more of the number of opportunities to the square foot, than this Southern Educational Association.

We greet you tonight sincerely, fraternally and honestly, as a most gallant company and a most responsible organization. The most incomparable and useful body that ever dropped down into the strange wilds of an unfinished country. I am glad that you have seen fit to meet here.

All the speakers here tonight that have preceded me give me an opportunity to speak more specifically than I would otherwise have done. We are all teachers. The State of Georgia teaches us government and civil authority; the city of Atlanta teaches progress and prosperity, and I am sometimes inclined to think that, far removed from present conditions and present representatives, that both of these organizations sometimes teach the principles of government to the holder of the office more than to the people. I am sure tonight that we all teach, except this great body that I have the pleasure of addressing, hastily, rapidly and hurriedly. The Governor of Georgia must do his work with rapidity and discharge his duties through the exigencies that surround him every day; the mayor of Atlanta is compelled, in the rush and roar of a great city, to reach his decisions rapidly; and the press is compelled, in the exigency for volumes of things that roll in upon it, to make its conclusions rapidly and to reach its sentiments hurriedly from the standpoint of the movement.

I assure you, gentlemen of the Southern Educational Association, that we envy tonight the cloistered leisure and opportunity of the school-room, and we feel tonight that in your presence and from your thought and inspiration, we who rule the State and we who rule in the city, and we who co-operate with you, earnestly and humbly in the press, must learn the lessons and receive the inspiration that is to make our work more effective in our co-operation with you. I believe tonight we are looking forward to the greatest era in our history; that the problems that confront us have never been more serious, and have never demanded more serious and earnest consideration from men who love their country; and that no small part of the solution of this great problem, if not the greatest part, rests with the men and women represented

by this Association—upon this educational convention here tonight. For my own part, speaking for the great profession to which I belong, I heartily lift my hat in deference to the great responsibility that you bear to the present and future.

In the development of these Gulf and Southwestern States the question of education is going to be more a winning element in the influence of sections and the dominance of peoples. It is going to tell more and more decisively upon the sharp competition of the future years. If the people of these states—and more particularly these Southern States, beyond the protest and penuriousness of demagoguery, do not multiply and increase the quality and percentage of their schools and raise the average of character and intelligence among the masses of the people, why, the people of other sections will surely dominate us in politics, in religion, and in law, and ingraft their own ideâs upon the decaying body of our civilization.

The hope of the future is in an educated, enlightened and uplifted citizenship. Educate the citizen, exalt the citizen, dignify magnify, glorify the citizen, if we would exalt, dignify and glorify the State. Education is the cry and the key-note of the future.

And yet there are some things that our teachers have yet to learn in education. The age of the universal scholar is past. Art is long and time is fleeting, and it is doubtful if we shall see an Admirable Crichton or a Leonardo da Vinci any more. The age demands direction, and the thousand of stranded wrecks along the shores of education make a strong and passionate plea against the "misfits" of professional life and the misdirected intelligence of the world. Men get into wrong lines and uncongenial spheres through accident, and apathy, and ambition. A youth whose whole talent sets to mechanics, happens to be born of ambitious parents who decide that the lancet is more honorable than the chisel. He is rushed to a university, pitchforked through a course of Latin and Greek, railroaded through an examination, attends lectures and is licensed—"licensed to kill scientifically." He pours drugs of which he knows little, into bodies of which he knows less, until his incapacity is discovered and he starves. Square men get into oblong holes, and round men into square holes. Many a carpenter has been spoiled in an artist; many a man spends his years in measuring tape, when with proper direction he might thunder in a forum. There are men at the work-bench who ought to be in the pulpit; men at the bar who ought to be in the butcher shop; and, if this noble body of our visitors will forgive the treason, there are teachers who, by all the evidences, ought to be splitting rails. [Laughter and applause.]

We trust in God that the time will come when it will be

esteemed a crime in society, if not in law, for any man, teacher or parent, through ignorance or ambition, to push a youth into any avocation for which neither aptitude nor inclination fit him.

There is not a wise and intelligent parent in the world who would not rather have a teacher, through diligence, patience and intelligent interest, to help him help his boy to find the work for which nature and Providence designed him, than stuff his head with all the Greek roots and Latin stems and algebraic quantities that ever blossomed rank in the wilderness of learning.

Direction is the educational cue of the future. That is the secret that the Jesuits, the most marvelous educators of their time; and the miracles that they wrought were explained in the care and skill and infinite pains with which they helped each man to find his work and fitted him for it. This is not narrow nor restrictive. The world has need of many men and many minds. But no man can swim up stream against the current of his nature and his talents. No man ever made an ill figure in life who understood his own talents, nor a good one who mistook them. Direction and understanding, after the Socratic axiom, "know thyself," is the work of the educator.

There ought to be a chair of "aptitude" in every college, or an annex of aptitudes to every chair. Several hours in every week ought to be given by every faculty to a detailed and careful study by sections of the temperament, trend and aptitudes of the students in the intermediate classes, and every boy should carry home from his high school graduation, and every student from his sophomore and junior finals, a written statement to his parent or guardian from his faculty adviser, or from his faculty advisers, giving the deliberate, observant and intelligent judgment of the responsible directors of his mind and character as to his special aptitudes for the various callings of life. [Applause.]

With this superb co-operation the earnest youth and the earnest parent may hold intelligent and serious counsel, and without compulsion, every youth may enter upon his college course with some definite mind and choice as to his wisest and most appropriate way of life. Along this line alone may the "misfits of life be avoided." Here in this consecrated intelligence may we avoid the wrecks which mock at education and deride the schools.

This is in part the mission of the twentieth century teacher. It is worthy of you and worthy of your best brain and heart. It is the sure way to magnify the individual and to glorify society.

To help each man find his work; to fit each man for his sphere; to start each youth in the right way which instantly becomes the royal way; to make each man the king of a craft, the

master of himself, the lord of his aptitudes—a perfect part in the perfect machinery of a perfect State.

Pardon the presumption, gentlemen, teachers, of one other suggestion which the press, standing as herald and observer, proffers as a prophecy and appeal for the future.

So far as they relate to the development of intellect alone, our educational systems have never been brighter, more sparkling and more effective. If God has planted problems thick upon the bosom of the times, we are ripening side by side the high intelligence at least to grapple them.

But intelligence alone is not enough. Two-thirds of the criminals in the country are educated men. The criminality of a race about us has actually increased with its education. History and statistics fairly reek with the declaration that mere intellectual development in itself and by itself does not conserve the highest interests of civilization or the welfare of the State.

The moral idea must inevitably be injected into education. The school of the future must make men as well as scholars. The school of the future must teach men and women right conviction and the courage to express it. Purpose must lock arms with development. Character must join itself to attainments and the heart—the heart of the patriot—must pulse the brain of the scholar if this republic shall endure. Wherefore, the press pleads with the lecturer, the publicist pleads with the professor's chair—that while you plant, as we know you do, the principles of civic and economic government, you shall not fail here and everywhere to plant deeper still within the plastic minds of American youth the tremendous and far more important lessons of truth, of honor, of civic duty, and of a citizen's responsibility.

For I make bold to say in this high presence that when all the forces that look to the perpetuity of the republic have been analyzed and measured it will be found that an educated, enlightened, Christian citizen—nurtured in character as he has been nurtured in intellect, realizing his duty to God, his country and his home—is the best antidote to every civic evil, and the best pledge of a nation's glory that ever went over a patriot's prayers to heaven. [Applause.]

It is because this splendid body carries these high hopes and these vast responsibilities, that the State, the city, the pulpit and the press, welcome you with cordial greeting and reverent God-speed to this Twentieth Century City of the South. [Applause.]

RESPONSE TO ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

PRESIDENT EDWIN M. POTEAT, FURMAN UNIVERSITY, GREENVILLE, S. C.

Mr. President, I thank you for making it my pleasant duty to respond to these addresses and you will grant me an *aside* to the audience before I begin my speech to the gentlemen on the platform. I hope, ladies and gentlemen, that you appreciate the delicacy of my responsibility in trying to speak for all of you to these three gentlemen. [Applause.]

And now—your Excellency, the Governor, and your Honor, the Mayor, and you, Mr. Editor—please be assured that we appreciate your words and your welcome. Indeed you have quite met our ideal of the host in what you have thus far said and done. The distinction of the host, you know, is in the art of putting the guest at his ease; and the distinction of the guest is the art of making himself at home. You have put us at our ease already, and we are going to do the very best we can to make ourselves at home. I say the very best we can, because, you understand, you are a very distinguished host and we are people from very remote places, and it will not seem strange to you if we are a little timid in the beginning of our acquaintance. I had a young man at my table yesterday in Greenville and —well, it was some time before he thawed out. It may be some time before we thaw out, but I feel very sure that the genial sunshine of your generous welcome will help us in that direction, and it will not be long before we are quite ourselves.

Now, the first questions that arise between host and guest when they meet for the first time, are, Who are you? Where do you come from? and, What are you interested in? If I must answer this first question—Who are you and where do you come from? I shall have to answer in the language of a certain Biblical character: "From going to and fro in the earth, and from walking up and down in it." For that is what we do. [Laughter and applause.] If I must answer the second question—What are you interested in? I must say plainly, in education.

Edmund Burke has somewhere spoken of society as a whole as "a partnership in all science, a partnership in all art, a partnership in every virtue and in all perfection." Now the people through whom that partnership is realized are the people who are represented here tonight; the people who "teach the young idea how to shoot." Yes, that is the way our profession used to be defined. None of us here tonight but feel how inadequate that definition is. No; you must turn to that book just from the press,

from Professor Francis G. Peabody, of Harvard, to find what is now considered to be a definition of our calling. He says: "The teacher stands before the undeveloped capacity of the scholar as an agent in the evolution of a person. He is a laborer together with God; a participant in a creative work: What sustains him in the routine and detail of his task is the reverent sense of this participation with the Eternal. He works by faith, not by sight."*

The people who are before you and whom you have welcomed to your city tonight, are the people who are engaged in that task in participation with the Eternal; the task of the development of persons. There are volcanic and entirely revolutionary forces that have heaved mountains out of the heart of the seas, yonder is Teneriffe for proof. It is our task by the far grander and more silent forces of a patient and intelligent sympathy, with a whole generation of youth, to heave to the higher level of a whole continent; to raise the standard, the average of intelligence and of moral worth of a whole people. And I am delighted to hear you, Mr. Editor, put the emphasis as you do upon this second clause, the moral worth, for it is our conviction that to educate youth in the way of sharpening their intellects without molding their characters, without pivoting their wills in the Eternal Will, is as though a man should build fine machinery and take no pains with the setting of it up; when the steam is turned on the said machinery will beat itself in pieces in a trice.

We thank you for giving us a trysting-place for our conferences on our perplexities and plans for raising the general intelligence and moral worth of a great people. It is for this, and to this, that we have dedicated ourselves, and we daily look to God for his blessings.

We thank you for giving us your words of welcome to your city. It is a Christmas gift and a New Year's gift that we shall be talking about all through 1904 — that we were in Atlanta December 30 and 31, and that we had a good time in the genial hospitality of the Gate City of the South. [Applause.]

* The Religion of an Educated Man; pp. 25, 26.

PRESIDENT'S ANNUAL ADDRESS.

PRES. FRANCIS P. VENABLE, UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA.

I have chosen, as the most fitting subject for the presidential address, to speak to you about some of the educational needs of the South. We have reached a critical period in our educational progress, a time when wise counsel and skilful leadership are demanded in order that we may avoid unwise moves and false turnings which may retard our progress or even transform our civilization. The long struggle against adverse circumstances, which has been almost like a struggle for mere existence, seems over. In this time it has been literally the teacher and the log, for the log schoolhouse has prevailed in the land. Colleges have had scant equipment and precarious incomes, with half-starved teachers, some worthy, and laboring with loving patience and nobility of self-sacrifice, true-hearted men and women whom their country should keep in grateful remembrance; others, untrained and incapable, yet doubtless earning the pittance they received. It has been the era of the 'neglected country school, of the isolated, overburdened teacher, of poverty, discouragement and of heroic achievement. Happily these conditions are being overcome and, I hope, may soon be counted as things of the past. We have reached a higher plane and are come upon a time of great hopefulness. The educational propaganda has gathered impetus and spread over the entire South—a movement which was stifled in its inception thirty years ago from fear of enforced racial equality. The child has been lifted up in the sight of all men and the sacredness of his claim and the importance of his education recognized. The politician, the editor, the preacher, have all joined in the call for improved conditions, and there is little fear that the movement shall fail of success.

This, then, is the status. The machinery for education has been greatly strengthened and improved, the people are

aroused; what more do we need and what is there to fear? I shall not speak of the need for better schoolhouses, libraries, laboratories and general equipment. These things are needed, but the people of the South are growing each year better able to supply them, and it is to our own people that we must chiefly look for help along these lines. And besides, too much store is sometimes set upon luxurious equipment. Good work can be done within rough brick walls if the workers are provided with brains, books and other tools. I have a belief that plain living is often conducive to high thinking in the case of institutions as well as individuals. This, of course, does not mean that our institutions be starved. As wealth increases they must be more liberally provided for.

But it is not of these things that I would speak. I wish to draw your attention rather to four other needs in our educational life, needs that are felt at all times, though especially felt just now. These needs are Sanity in Education, Patience in Education, Soundness in Education, and Scholarship in Education.

By Sanity in Education I mean the application of hard common sense to educational systems and methods. Sane, well-balanced leaders are needed to pilot the way safely through the maze of experimentation which has overrun our country and which has often proved a seeking of new things merely because they were novel. I do not mean to decry all new methods, nor do I advocate the clinging to old ways simply because they are the ways of the fathers. The science of education is a progressive science and must grow in accordance with the laws of evolution. It demands new ideas and improved systems, and the fittest only shall survive. Still, we must be very careful not to judge the value of a system by its novelty solely, without testing it strictly to see whether it is true to the principles of the science and brings improvement.

Thus many educational fads have arisen. False steps have been taken and valuable time wasted. Surely we of the South have neither time nor money to waste, if we are

to catch up in the race with the rest of the country. It will be well for us to follow in well-trodden paths, approved by experienced leaders. There may not be quite so much variety in such a course, but it is safe and good.

There is a tendency in these days to crowd into the curricula of our secondary schools a large number of studies which have been regarded as belonging to the province of the college. This can not commend itself to the well-balanced judgment as pedagogically wise or educationally sane. Nor can I admit that it is a necessity, as claimed by some. I can, however, readily understand the temptation to do this. This is a wonderful age of a vast and varied knowledge, and the time which the average young citizen can spend in preparation for entering upon his life work is so brief that the teacher feels that he must crowd it to the full with all sorts of "ologies" and "isms" which go to make the culture of the age. There is current a misleading saying that the high school is the people's college — a mere catch phrase which will not bear analysis. It is no one's college, and it cannot be made a college without impairing its efficiency as a school. The only glimmer of truth in the saying is that the great mass of the people go to no higher institution, and so lack opportunity for all real collegiate education. This is in some cases a misfortune and a distinct loss, but it furnishes no excuse for the effort at bringing the learning of the college down to the school and imparting it without any reference to the necessary preliminary training and maturity of mind. The prime object of the lessons studied during the school years is the development, discipline and training of the mental powers, and the mere imparting of facts is subordinate and auxiliary to this purpose. Experience has shown that a certain definite order in these studies is wise and even necessary as it is true in the eating of material food. The immature school-boy is poorly fitted for the mental fare which is often offered him; and a hurtful smattering of undigested facts is generally the result. Let us be sane about these things. Avoid the fads, test carefully the novelties which are proposed as sub-

stitutes for the approved methods, profit by the experience and experiments of others and do not let us be deceived into dreaming that the sum total of human knowledge can be crammed into any immature brain in the few short years of school or college. Better the boy who knows a few things well and has been trained to observe and think and study than the monstrous product of some of the schools, crammed to suffocation with undigested facts, with a smattering of everything and a knowledge of nothing.

This leads to the second need of which I would speak, and that is Patience in Education. The dominant word in the American vocabulary is hustle. The music of the pause is almost unknown in our lives. We are on a dead rush to get rich, and sometimes get poor in the hurry. The quick lunch is the favorite meal. Everything is shortened except our speeches. Now, it is natural that this feverish haste should find its way into our educational methods. Some of our leading institutions, which should know much better, are shortening the traditional college course of four years to three or even to two, sending out students with their certificates, as Woodrow Wilson says, before the sap has risen as high as their heads. There are institutions in the South which would beguile unwary young men into the belief that all necessary learning can be imparted in a single year, or at most two. The impatience of parents and of the young people themselves withdraws the great majority of them from our schools and colleges before the course is half over.

We must teach patience in this matter. There is no safe method of forcing physical development in the young, and all such forcing of mental development will still more surely produce abnormalities. These intellectual quick lunches can only bring about mental indigestion. Knowledge must be assimilated as well as gathered, and time is an important factor in this process of assimilation. The mere acquiring a few facts is not the prime object of an education. As Peabody says, the end of education is not information, but inspiration. This principle is constantly lost sight

of. The ideal of the best schools and colleges is to give a training for service. Those who wish to be ready for high service will not begrudge the necessary years of patient training. Those who are content with small things will impatiently turn away from the school to their own loss and that of their country.

A third need to which attention must be paid is Soundness in Education. This includes breadth and thoroughness — two ideals which are not incompatible. Yet, if conditions demand the sacrifice of either one, by all means let it be the former, and let us insist upon the latter. Too many of our colleges offer courses which are flabby in the extreme. It may be that a small underpaid faculty is making a desperate effort to cover nearly the entire range of human knowledge. As some one has said, the professors occupy settees instead of chairs. The catalogue presents course after course, and there is apparently a wonderful breadth of culture, but the shallowness of the whole thing is very pitiful. How much braver and better it would be if such an institution would abandon this painful attempt at expansion and teach the great fundamentals of education with a thoroughness and soundness which would give honest satisfaction to both teachers and students. For genuine high-class college work a professor is over-burdened who has over fifteen hours of recitations a week, and it is far better that he should have only eight or ten. In this lay the great strength of the University of Virginia, where the professors have rarely more than eight or ten hours of recitations a week and the students were limited to nine. And yet many a student averaged twelve to fourteen hours of study a day for those nine recitations. There was an honest soundness there which has made a deep and lasting impression upon the education of the South. On the other hand, I have examined catalogues of Southern colleges, claiming to do good work, where some of the professors had thirty hours and more of recitations per week. This is carrying the method of the secondary and primary school into the college. It is ruinous to all growth and ambition on the part of the

professor, and can only give a superficial veneering to the student.

Again, on account of the low standards for entrance and the low cost, numbers of young men are crowding into our technical schools who really have no intention of preparing themselves for industrial pursuits, but are simply seeking a cheap education. It is unfortunate for the technical schools and for our country that this should be so. These schools are doing a great work for our land, and we have good cause to be proud of them. They are too jealously watched by the various legislatures to allow of their expansion along the lines of a general education and there is no need for such duplication of ordinary college work. Besides, there is just as great a need of thoroughness and soundness here, if they are properly to fill their sphere. The class of students mentioned, then, get no general education and no substitute for it. Their failure to get the proper education is a loss to the country. Besides, their presence must unquestionably impair the efficiency of the instruction given to the genuine technical student. I acknowledge the difficulty of the task, but I believe that some method can be devised for sifting them out which will greatly add to the strength and soundness of our technical schools.

Lastly, I would plead for a Higher Scholarship. We are all pleased at the great strides toward material prosperity taken by the South in the past decade or two, and are very proud of her industrial achievements, but the true glory of the land has always and must always lie in other things. It is well to build up our own waste places, to raise the cotton and weave clothing for the world, to work wood and iron and steel into forms that shall be useful and that shall add to the sum of human happiness and comfort. But surely this is not all nor the highest. I love my Southern people, but not merely that they may do these things and accumulate wealth. I wish them always to be powerful in the councils of the nation, as they were in old times. There is more than ever a call for great statesmen who can lead the people and teach them to solve the grave problems

confronting them. Men with the capacity to think straight and to discriminate between the seeming and the real. Men, as Emerson says, who know that a popgun is a popgun even though the ancients and honorables of the earth affirm it to be the crack of doom. We need learned lawyers, in fact, scholarship in law, in medicine, in theology, in business, and a deeper, broader scholarship and culture everywhere, and we must see to it that as fast as possible our higher institutions provide for this higher scholarship so that all who will may have it. Possessing these great gifts, who can deny us our place in the nation and the world.

LOCAL TAXATION.

DR. CHARLES D. M'IVER, PRESIDENT NORTH CAROLINA NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL COLLEGE.

There are a few words we use to conjure with. The word "free" is very attractive. The very word "liberty" is sweet to us, and hearing the word "tyranny" makes us bristle with resentment. It is not unnatural, therefore, that public leaders should make frequent use of these terms to excite passion and active interest. Nor is it wonderful that good should sometimes be denounced as tyranny and bad policies should frequently be defended in the name of liberty. A certain definite interest, favorable or unfavorable, attaches to the class of words to which I refer, and makes them natural promoters of prejudice. As an illustration of this, the word "tax" is an unwelcome word, even where it is not a hated word. The aversion to taxation is due to one of the following three causes:

(1) Ignorance of the fact that taxation is simply an exchange of a little money for something better — civilized government. The savage alone is exempt from taxation. It is strange that the man who pays cheerfully his annual insurance premium for protection against fire and death

should regard it as tyranny when called upon to pay his tax, which is an annual premium to protect against arson and murder.

(2) There is, of course, another class of people who oppose all taxation because of pure selfishness. They know that organized government is a necessity, but this class of people will never pay for anything if they think they can make other people pay for it. They regard any system that calls upon them to give up anything for any purpose, however good, as a thing to be avoided. This is the "penny-wise and pound-foolish" class, and overreaches itself by hindering all progress. Selfishness has in it the seeds of death.

(3) Then there is a certain inherited hatred of taxation, due in very large part, to the old custom of collecting taxes from one class of society to be expended for the benefit or the pleasure of another class. The people objected to paying taxes for the extravagant rioting of royalty. This was a personal application, in its most offensive form, of "taxation without representation." Moreover, the most intelligent and patriotic citizens object to taxation even for good and necessary purposes, if levied without the consent of the taxed. It is no wonder, then, that our ancestors decreed that for one class of society to levy taxes for their own selfish pleasure without even consulting those who were to pay the taxes, was unendurable tyranny. Nor is it unnatural that some of their descendants should have fallen into the unfortunate and hurtful habit of indiscriminate hostility to all taxation. This feeling is often like that expressed in the old couplet:

"I do not like you, Dr. Fell,
The reason why, I cannot tell."

"Dr. Fell" must have been closely related to "Dr. Tax."

SELF-IMPOSED TAXATION.

It adds to the burden that educational workers must

carry, while fighting their battles, that in this country general education is possible only by self-imposed taxation.

No normal American community after establishing a public school system and maintaining it for five years has ever decided that it was wise to discontinue the tax necessary to maintain the system.

TASK OF STATESMANSHIP AND PHILANTHROPY.

What, then, is the real work of educational statesmanship and philanthropy? It is simple in statement, but difficult of accomplishment. It is our task to persuade people to vote a special tax for education in communities where there have never been efficient schools as object lessons; where there is an inherited and cultivated hatred of taxation; and where a very large proportion of the voters are either illiterate or but crudely trained. Under these conditions it is no easy task to stimulate intelligence and convert the judgment and conscience of men.

The majority of the people in this audience live in communities where special local taxes have been voted for the purpose of training the children of those communities. It is not necessary that any argument should be made in favor of local taxation to any representative of such a community. It would be a waste of time to argue with a typical citizen of Atlanta as to the wisdom and justice of school taxes or school appropriations from the general taxes. The most selfish citizen, if there be such in this community, knows that Atlanta makes no better investment than the money she collects in taxes for the maintenance of a good school system, while other citizens, looking beyond mere investment, recognize their debt to preceding generations for establishing civilization for us, and are glad to discharge the obligations to the past, so far as possible, by generous provision for the training of present and future generations.

DUTY OF LOCAL TAX COMMUNITIES TO OTHER COMMUNITIES.

If I were addressing a community which had not levied

a special educational tax, I should undertake to show that such tax is just, wise, economical and necessary. I prefer, however, to ask you to consider the duty and the opportunity of your own communities that have already levied this tax and established their schools to the communities which have not done so. Atlanta knows that she gets more than value received for the money she invests in her educational system. Is it not true, and cannot Atlanta help to teach some other communities in Georgia the truth, that it would be wise and profitable for them to follow her example? Is it sufficient even for the centers of commerce themselves that they should have good educational facilities for their own children and that their neighbors should not have such advantages? Have they no concern, selfish concern, if you please, for education in other communities allied to them by political, social and commercial ties? Can you make Georgia a greater, stronger and freer State without making Atlanta greater, stronger and freer? Is it not the duty of Atlanta and of every other city and community in the Southern States, which has found it wise and profitable to levy a special local tax to educate its children, to use every possible legitimate means to persuade every other community in the South, large and small, to do the same thing?

FEW RURAL COMMUNITIES HAVE VOTED SPECIAL TAX.

I would not miss the mark very far if I were to say that in the States here represented nine-tenths of the urban communities have voted a special local tax for the improvement of their schools within the past thirty years, and that, on the other hand, nine-tenths of the rural communities have not yet voted such a tax. None of the communities that have voted the tax have been converted to it by any miracle. It has been by the slow process of persuading men that it is right and wise and profitable to vote the tax. It is not difficult to persuade an intelligent man that this is true, and one such convert will convert many others in his community.

IN DISCUSSING EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH THE FOLLOWING FACTS AND CONDITIONS MUST BE KEPT IN MIND.

I. *Area.* The area of the Southern States is about 800,000 square miles, about sixteen times the area of New York State.

II. *Urban and Rural Population.* In all this territory there are only twenty-four cities with a population above 30,000, and only one hundred and fifty other cities whose population is over 5,000. Three States, North Carolina, Florida and Mississippi, have no city in the former class, and four or five others have only one such city. Of the 1,800,000 people in North Carolina, 1,600,000 live in the country or in villages of less than 2,000 population, leaving only 200,000 people living in the cities or towns of more than 2,000 inhabitants. The proportion of urban population is a little lower in North Carolina than in the entire South; but Mississippi is even more rural than North Carolina.

III. *Local Tax in Practically all Urban and no Rural Communities.* In practically every community with more than 2,000 inhabitants, a local school tax has been voted by the people to supplement the school fund provided by State levy and otherwise, and the result is public schools in these communities that compare favorably with those in communities of similar size elsewhere. But in not five per cent. of the *rural* communities in the South have the people voted a special local school tax. At least six States have no county that has levied such a tax on all its property.

When it is remembered that wherever satisfactory public schools exist in this country, north or south, whether in urban or rural communities, from one-half to nine-tenths of the school revenue is raised by local taxation, the above conditions appear in their true light.

IV. *The County Superintendent.* What is needed is stronger men to lead the people in the rural sections to do

what their neighbors in the cities and towns have already done. Unfortunately, ever since the Revolution, which was fought on a tax issue, the loudest-talking political leader has taught the people to hate the word "tax"—not any particular tax, but just tax.

To persuade the people that the levying of any tax is a profitable investment demands more power than is possessed by the average county superintendent. The average salary of the county superintendent in several Southern States is less than \$400. Men are now needed in these positions who can teach the truth that an industrious community may become rich by levying certain taxes for its own improvements, that taxation is one of the chief characteristics of civilization, that the savage pays no tax. The local school tax is the fundamental necessity of the South, and men must be secured who can persuade the people to vote this tax upon themselves. A persistent, tactful campaign alone can do this.

HOW TO PERSUADE AND WHEN TO BEGIN.

How shall we persuade these communities to do what we have already done, and when shall we begin? There are two lines of special work to be done, the first by the teacher, the second largely by other citizens. Educational leaders must make themselves familiar with all the details of taxation and school revenues. They ought to be able to show any man in their respective communities, who occasionally will complain of his school tax, how little he pays and how great are the returns from that small tax. He ought to be able to show the many citizens, who think that they can not afford the school tax, that their tobacco tax and whiskey tax, which they pay voluntarily, amount to more than their school tax. He ought not only to be able to go to the tax books and know *how* to get the information, but *he ought to go and get it*, and tell the community exactly how much it will cost to make the schools what

they ought to be, and exactly how many citizens there are in a community to whom the cost would be as much as a dollar a year. He ought to be able to address an audience, whether it consists of one person, a group of people, or a congregation, and give them a business statement in regard to the public schools of the community.

In my State it will be possible to double the public school fund and make a fairly efficient school system, if our people can be persuaded to vote upon themselves a special tax of thirty cents on a hundred dollars worth of property and ninety cents on each poll; and if this should be voted, the additional annual property tax of four-sevenths of the rural population in a dozen of the leading counties of the State, whose tax books I have examined, would be less than 90 cents.

If we teachers can not do this piece of public service, which has never been done properly, and present this question to the public through the press and otherwise in a business fashion, I say that the public should dismiss us from its service, and employ some people who take a rational interest in their own business.

COMMUNITY PHILANTHROPY.

The other work to which I refer is the work of citizens of all classes in our leading communities. Recently this great and enterprising city of Atlanta decided that it desired to do something for education and — for itself. Great meetings were called and it raised a quarter of a million dollars by individual subscriptions to secure the location of a great institution of learning in the city. This was a fine piece of enterprise, considered selfishly or otherwise, and I hope that Atlanta will secure the prize. Part of this money was subscribed for philanthropic reasons. Would it not be possible to raise in the city of Atlanta a fund going well up into the thousands to be used for encouraging the people of the rural districts of Georgia to vote upon themselves a special school tax sufficient to properly equip their buildings and

maintain such schools as are necessary for the children of a free democracy? Many of the urban centers that are now so far ahead of the rural communities in education were aided in their early struggle to establish their school systems by assistance from the Peabody Fund or from other philanthropic sources.

Is there not such a thing as community philanthropy? Is it not possible for us to persuade the people where we live to raise a fund, small or large, to be used to aid the people of another particular community that is now willing to vote a special tax, as our own community voted it, by the help and encouragement of others, ten, twenty or thirty years ago?

EXAMPLE OF GREENSBORO AND CHARLOTTE.

The enterprising cities of Greensboro and Charlotte in North Carolina, a little more than a year ago raised \$10,000 for this purpose, knowing that not one cent of it could be used within their borders. This money was duplicated by an equal amount from the General Education Board, but the work had been inaugurated and half the amount raised by Greensboro for the rural schools of Guilford county was subscribed before the General Education Board had been organized. When the General Education Board saw that they could strengthen this work of community philanthropy, they gladly made a proposition which enabled the friends of the movement to raise much larger local subscriptions than could have been secured without its co-operation. The \$20,000 has been or will be distributed to aid the rural schools of Mecklenburg, Henderson and Guilford counties. The fund is given to aid those townships and districts that vote a local tax sufficient to conduct a good school. In the three counties, thirty-six districts have levied a special tax, and not only secured part of the money contributed by the citizens of Charlotte and Greensboro and by the General Education Board, but have raised by private subscriptions in their local communities, larger amounts than they have

received. The best result, of course, is the increase of \$7,000 or \$10,000 in the permanent annual school fund of these rural districts. This is one of the results of what I call Community Philanthropy. Many towns and cities will raise money for such philanthropic purposes, when the usefulness of such a fund is properly presented to them.

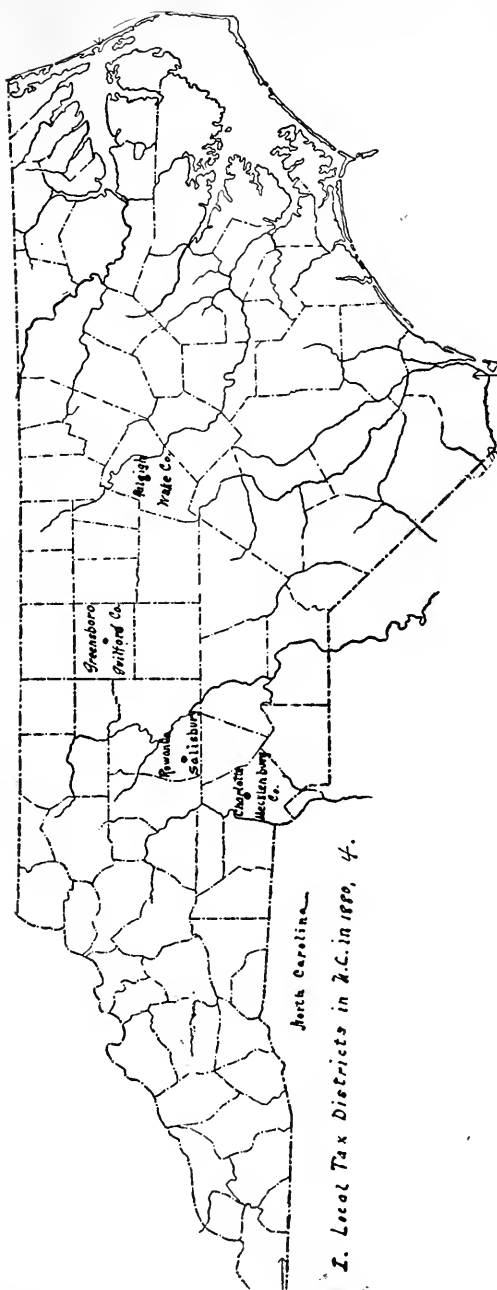
ATLANTA AND GREATER GEORGIA.

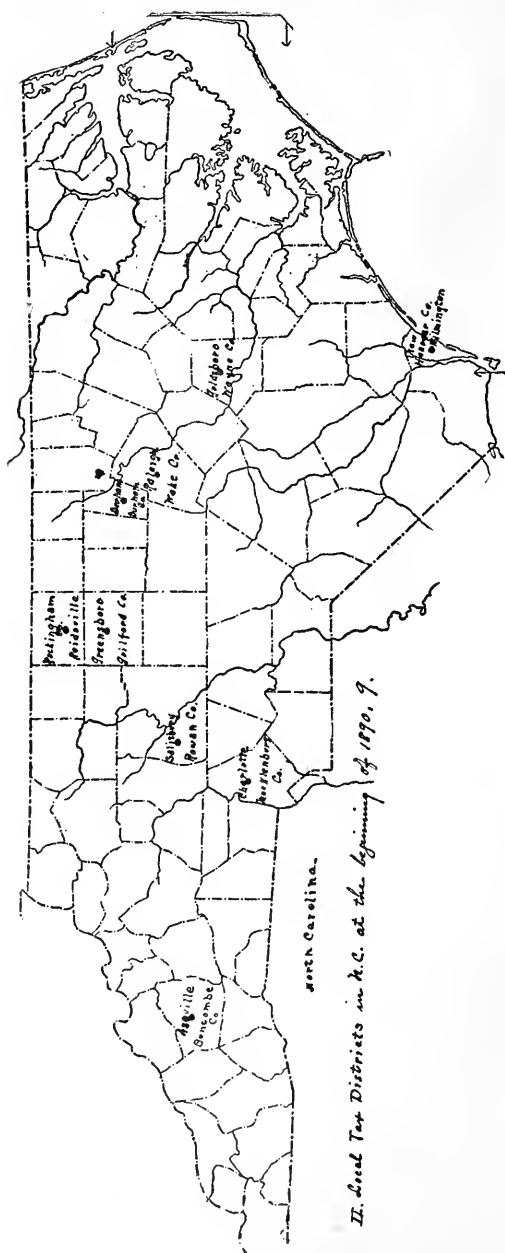
It ought not to be difficult to find a hundred citizens of Atlanta who would contribute to such a fund \$100 a year for three years. This \$10,000 a year could be so used as to increase the investment in the training of Georgia children more than \$1,000,000 in ten years. If the teaching profession will lead this movement with intelligence and energy, and if it can have the co-operation of the public-spirited citizens of Atlanta and other progressive cities of the State, the Greater Georgia of destiny is now in sight, and what is true of Atlanta and Georgia is true of every other city and State in the South.

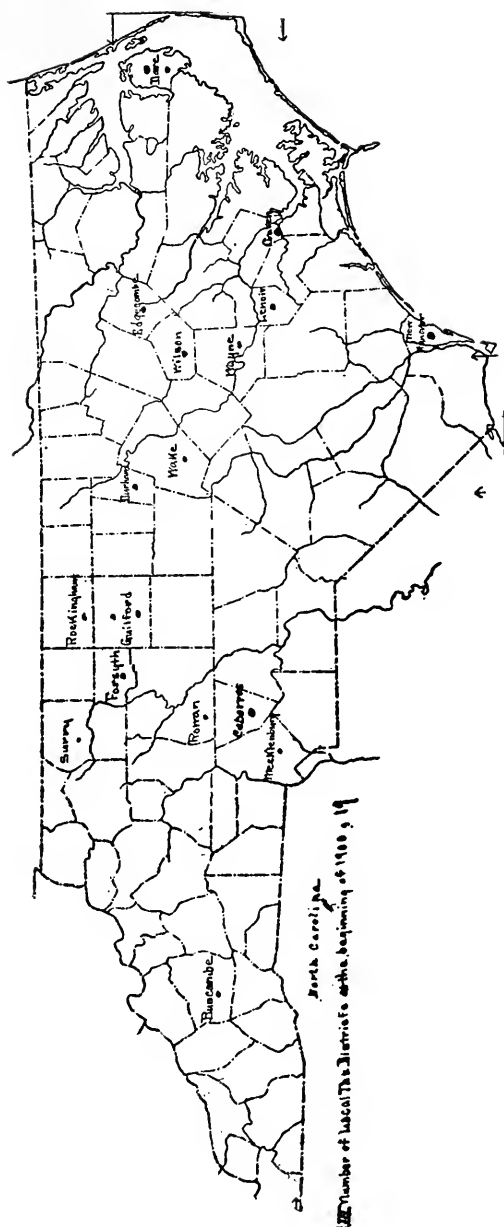
NOTE — By local taxation, I do not refer to those taxes levied and spent in counties according to constitutional or legislative requirements. Much of the school fund in probably most of the Southern States is levied in this way, and in that sense might be considered as derived from local taxes. But such taxes are not sufficient to support an efficient school system.

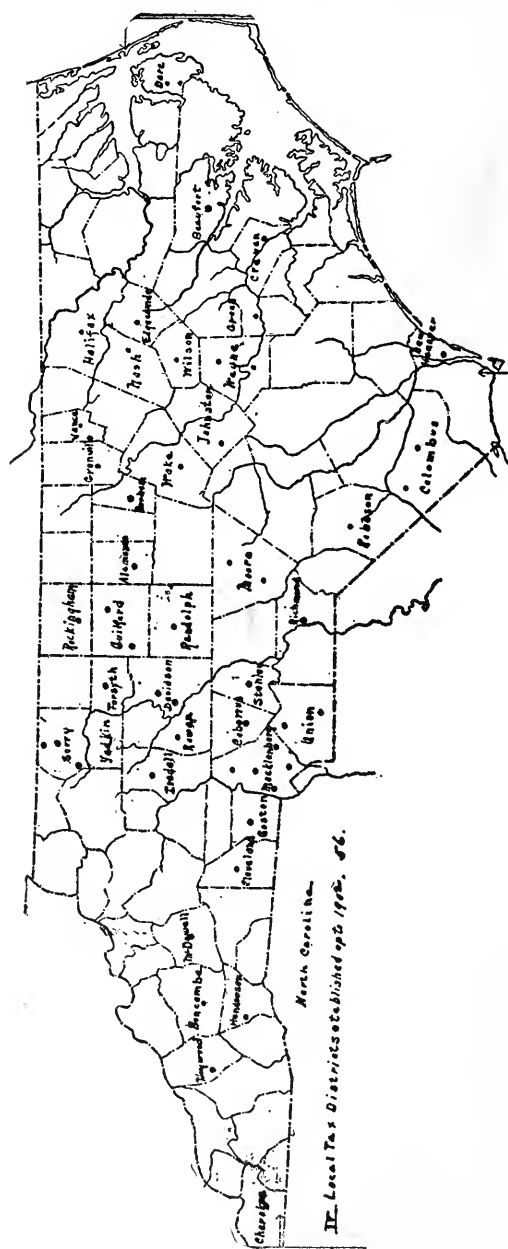
It is notable and encouraging that during the past two or three years the number of local tax districts, by local vote for special school tax, has been doubled, and in one or two States quadrupled.

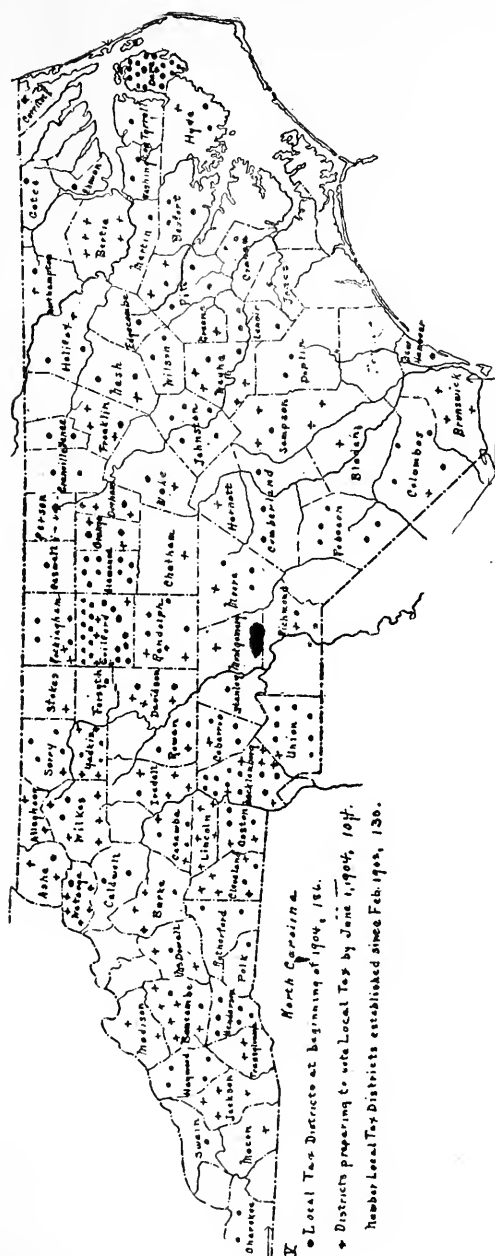
The maps that follow show the progress of local taxation in North Carolina. Since the last map was made the number of local tax districts by special vote has been increased to about 220, and this is only the beginning of a movement that will soon reach every rural district.











ADDRESS ON LOCAL TAXATION.

PROF. P. P. CLAXTON, KNOXVILLE, TENN.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

North Carolina is fortunate in having a law that permits local taxation for public schools. The people of any school district may by a majority of registered voters tax themselves thirty cents on each hundred dollars of taxable property and ninety cents on each poll for the support of their schools—this in addition to their part of the state and county schools funds. We need such a law in every Southern State. The principle is right, the policy is wise. When the people realize that they are themselves paying for their schools, they will be careful as to their character and more diligent in getting their share of the direct benefits. The very fact that there must be a campaign among the people of the district in order to get the tax voted is valuable. The campaign offers an excellent opportunity to create sentiment in favor of education and to set the people thinking about their duty in regard to the education of their own children. It is always worth while to bring great questions before the people and have them discuss it in their homes and at their social gatherings. It is the democratic way and will always win in the end. I wish every district had the power to tax itself, not only for the support of the schools, but also for buildings and equipment. Our buildings would be better and would be better cared for. There would be less money spent for high-priced but worthless globes, charts and other supplies.

The constitution of Tennessee prohibits district taxation except in incorporated towns whose charters provide for it. The State appropriates for schools about \$400,000 from its treasury. This is apportioned among the counties in proportion to their scholastic population and amount to about fifty cents for each child. The State also requires each county to levy for school purposes not less than fifteen cents on

each hundred dollars of taxable property and one dollar on each poll. Beyond this the power of taxation is in the power of the county courts. These courts may, under the laws of the State, levy for elementary schools fifty cents more on each one hundred dollars worth of property, a dollar more on each poll, and privilege taxes not exceeding the State rate, and for county high schools they may levy a property tax of fifteen cents on the hundred or they may appropriate for this purpose any part of the county funds other than the school fund.

So you see, our schools are in the hands of the county courts. The courts have over them the power of life if not of death. Our problem is to move the courts. This can be done in two ways, directly and indirectly. We are trying both. As a rule we find the courts willing to listen to argument in favor of increased taxes or appropriations for the schools, and anyone who can present the claims of the schools intelligently can get a hearing. Within the last two years I have addressed quite a number of these courts and have always received a hearty welcome and the best attention. Within the last week requests have come to me from four counties for some one to address their courts the first Monday in January. The demand for speakers is greater than the supply. The field is white unto the harvest. We need laborers for the work. The members of the courts feel their responsibility as representatives of the people and guardians of their interests, and they are, as a rule, ready to appropriate the people's money for the support of the schools when they are convinced that it is wise to use it in this way and that their action will be approved by the people they represent. Many of them are politicians and with the politicians' wisdom (or fear) will not go beyond the known wishes of their constituents. This makes it necessary to appeal to the people and make sentiment among them just as if the matter were to be settled by popular ballot. This appeal must be made and sentiment created by public addresses, by personal canvass and by the press, and teachers must, and

should do the work. It is not primarily the business of the preacher, the lawyer, the doctor or the politician, but it is ours, and we must do the work vigorously and persistently. Dr. McIver is right in his contention. When the teachers have made the cause popular, there will be help enough from all kinds of people.

One of our States is a large piece of territory, and no half-dozen men or women can hope to reach all the people on any question unless they can give all their time to it. A general campaign is good. But there must be local campaigns, with local campaign committees and local speakers. A group of counties, along a line of railroad or for other reasons easily accessible in all their parts from a central point, forms the proper unit. The conditions and needs will be more nearly the same for the counties of such a group than for all the counties of the State. Traveling expenses in time and money will be less than when the whole State is included in one campaign plan.

We are now organizing such a local campaign in the thirty-four counties of East Tennessee. These counties lie between the Smoky and Cumberland mountains and most of them are within easy reach of Knoxville by rail. A few days ago an education conference was held at the University of Tennessee, to which all teachers and school officers, all county judges, editors, members of the Legislature, ministers and club women of this section were invited. All these classes were represented in this conference, and for two days they discussed the educational conditions in these counties and the means of improving them. A campaign platform was adopted and a permanent campaign committee was appointed to plan and conduct a vigorous campaign. This committee is composed of county and city superintendents, college presidents and professors, lawyers, legislators, ministers and business men. Tomorrow they meet in Knoxville to make definite plans for the campaign. I have the honor to be a member of the committee and I feel sure we shall, among other things, provide for the publication of a handbook giving exact information about the

schools of this section and the cost of improving them, for a liberal use of the press in getting information to the people, for a series of addresses at the county court houses on the first Mondays of the Circuit Courts, for addresses before the County Courts at the April and July sessions, for addresses on education at the close of schools and colleges, and for a series of picnics and basket dinners with addresses on education next spring and summer.

We know a great movement like this is not a thing of a day or a year; but we are in for the war, and we shall expect to see important results before it is over. Constant labor, in season and out of season, through two or three or four years, will accomplish much, and the task will grow easier as the years go by.

Something like this that we are planning in the counties of East Tennessee should be done in all parts of the South, grouping together always such counties as can be handled together because of the similarity of conditions and accessibility.

DISCUSSION.

J. M. GUILLIAMS, EAST FLORIDA SEMINARY.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

We have possibly in Florida a peculiar condition, one that will interest the teachers who know something of it. I believe it is the only State in the Union in which the County Board of Education have entire control of all the public schools in the county. We have no such thing as state taxes; we have adopted an idea in favor of taxes, rather limited at present—it is nine mills on the dollar. In nearly all of the counties the limit has been reached and the people are clamoring for constitutional right to tax themselves still more.

At the last session of our Legislature, held in April and May, a constitutional amendment was proposed, and on its final passage I believe unanimously voted in both Houses, allowed an additional tax of two mills to be raised. We have a compulsory tax of one mill, a state tax, that goes to the State, and is an appropriation in accordance with school attendance, sent back to the counties, and then the five mill levy by the county authorities;

and then we have what is called a sub-district law, which enables part of the county, or the whole county if desired, to vote upon itself a three mill additional tax, making a total of nine mills. Now, we shall vote, as I said, next election in the coming year—and I think it will carry by an overwhelming majority—the constitutional right to increase the five mills tax to seven mills, giving us the right to levy a total of eleven mills on the dollar for school purposes.

Now, I understand that when our public school system was put in force in 1885, when the last constitution was made, that the great party in power there, the Democracy, clamored against that tax, but a few sensible Democrats and a large number of very black negroes and some very white Republicans, put that clause in the constitution, and you can scarcely find a man in the State today who is not in favor of not only a limited but go-beyond-the-limited. So much are they in favor of the taxation down there, that several counties are already taxing themselves beyond the constitutional right, but not a single taxpayer is making an objection. They are levying this instead of the constitution rate of five mills in some counties. This has been brought about by teachers, not only from our State, but those who have come in from Georgia, South Carolina, and possibly every State in the Union. It has come about by these people, people who have come into the State to raise oranges and children where they have good schools, demanding them down there, so that when the time comes we are going to ask you to come down there and see what we are doing. Meet with us and get part of our educational energy, and then you can come back and tax the people and have common schools. [Applause.]

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

SUPT. J. H. PHILLIPS, BIRMINGHAM, ALA.

I have no doubt that our time could be profitably spent in continuing the discussion of the question introduced by Dr. McIver—the question of Local Taxation. As he has suggested, this Association should have one or two central themes to distinguish it from other associations and to justify its independent existence. If there is any one subject that will justify the efforts of this Association, it

is this question of local taxation, because at present it is fundamental to all other educational questions in the Southern States. This question is essential not only to the establishment and maintenance of our schools, but also to their efficient conduct and management. Show me a community where there is no local taxation, and I will show you a community where there is but little interest in school attendance.

I had hoped that the two gentlemen whose names precede mine on the program would be present to open the subject for this discussion. In the absence of any paper to discuss, it is difficult for me to decide upon specific lines of treatment.

The subject of School Attendance is unquestionably important to the community and the State, as well as to the teacher. I shall first emphasize the fact that in order to effectually promote school efficiency, our school attendance must be *genuine*, not fictitious. It involves a great deal more than mere statistics. I fear that competition in our schools, in the effort to secure high per cent. of attendance, frequently results in more harm than good. In this matter there is danger from two possible extremes. The first danger is from laxness of teachers and others in authority in regard to the question of attendance. Pupils are allowed to come and go at will without question or attempt at restraint. In the absence of any law compelling attendance, teachers often shrink from the unpleasant duty of enforcing school rules and regulations in regard to attendance. Under present conditions, the teacher must depend upon the co-operation of patrons to secure regular attendance at school. By visiting the homes and arousing interest in the progress of the children, much may be accomplished without the power of legal enactment.

In towns and cities where the school organization is more complex, and where the authority of the teacher is reinforced by that of principal, superintendent and board of education, there is danger of the other extreme. The rights of the home may be overlooked and the physical

welfare of the child may be endangered. Undue severity in enforcing attendance is worse than laxness. In some cities the name of the child is dropped from the roll after an absence of five successive days. The child is dropped from the membership roll without inquiry into the cause of the absence; the percentage of attendance for the week or month is thereby raised and the teacher too often pays more heed to the weekly report than to the absent child. This indicates an unfortunate attitude on the part of teachers and school officials towards the question of absenteeism. Teachers and principals should at least investigate the cause of the absence, and use every effort to have the pupil return at once, if health and circumstances permit. In the States that have laws regulating school membership, at least ten days are allowed to elapse before the names of absentees are dropped from the roll, unless the absence is known to be permanent or indefinite. There is serious danger in emphasizing attendance for its mere statistical value. This sometimes results in the impairing of the health of pupils. There is a golden mean that the teacher must follow in this matter; he must on the one hand discourage parental coddling and unwise leniency, and, on the other hand, promote healthful conditions and secure that habitual regularity which is essential to efficiency.

Another question with which we must deal is that of home excuses for absence. The ideal plan will no doubt abolish this requirement, and insist upon the acceptance of the child's oral excuse. The theory is admirable, but we have not yet reached that ideal state when we can dispense with the formal written excuse from the home. As a formal element, however, it should be enforced in such a manner that no reflection shall rest upon the child's veracity and confidence shall not be impaired. We may safely lay down the principle that the teacher has a right to demand that the home shall be held responsible for the attendance of the child, and to require the parent or guardian to give a reasonable excuse for the child's failure to attend school during the period of membership. This may be questioned

in some communities as an unwarranted infringement upon the right of the home. This principle is fully recognized in those States where compulsory education is in force. It is assumed that the parent is responsible for the child's absence, and must give reasons for the same to those in authority. To determine the validity of these home excuses is one of the most difficult and delicate tasks confronting the teacher. There is danger here of undue rigidity. The teacher must recognize the fact that the child has relations and duties to the home as well as to the school; indeed, these duties to the home and to organized life in the community may often take precedence over his duties to the school. There is danger that the school may assume undue authority, invade the sacred relations of home life and exercise a species of tyranny over parents and children. The other danger readily occurs to us,—that of accepting as a valid excuse the statement that Johnnie went hunting with his father's consent, that he went to the circus, the dog show or the county fair. Parents will often render excuses for the absence of their children that cannot be accepted, if school efficiency is to be promoted. It is a great step in advance for a community when it recognizes the fact that the school authorities have a right to determine what external agencies are calculated to promote the educational interests of the children. If the Board of Education of this City of Atlanta decides that a circus is of sufficient educational value to the children of the city to justify a holiday, the whole community recognizes its value and upholds the authorities. If, on the other hand, it decides that a particular performance is not of sufficient educational value to give the holiday, the community respects the verdict. School work is the child's business; not his diversion. He must be held responsible for the performance of duty, unless released by those in authority for a purpose that shall help rather than retard his progress in school.

A brief treatment of the subject of tardiness will suffice. Too many teachers regard tardiness as a crime and treat

it even with more severity than they do falsehood or theft. I am unwilling to regard it as a crime; I am willing to admit that it is a social vice, and, like some other social vices, should be regulated, not abolished. Whatever your views or methods may be, you cannot abolish tardiness, with society constituted as it is. You may regulate it, and to regulate it properly, you must reach the homes of the children. You may reduce tardiness by punishing the children, but you will increase your absent list; you may artificially create a sentiment in the class room against it, but you are in danger of increasing absenteeism. I recall a city that had practically no tardiness in its schools for several years. Investigation showed that the class room doors were closed at nine o'clock every morning and the children that came after that hour were compelled to return to their homes. The school authorities of that city had practically concluded that it was better for the child to lose the entire day than to lose a few minutes by tardiness.

In the absence of legal enactment, what means are at the disposal of the teacher to secure regularity and punctuality in attendance? Love of work, interest in the school, the sense of duty or the desire to please, will suffice for the majority, perhaps. How can we reach the exceptional instances, the chronic cases that are habitually absent or tardy? I know of no better method than that of appealing to the home. Any device that will impress upon the home the effect of absence or tardiness upon the character of the child, is apt to serve as a corrective. When the habit seems to be chronic, temporary suspension from the privileges of the school may be necessary. In that event, the child is sent home at the close of the school day with a note to the parent requesting him to take the child to the principal or superintendent in order to secure his reinstatement. Child and parent are then confronted with the facts in the case; pledges are made for the future and are very apt to be fulfilled. When the home and the school are thus brought together, difficulties are explained, motives and methods

are understood, differences are reconciled and confidence is established.

The subject of truancy will require a brief discussion. In the larger cities of the country the question is solved by legislation. The legal machinery provided to suppress or control truancy includes truant officers, truant schools, and reform schools. But few of our Southern cities are provided with such machinery, and the teachers and school authorities are left to cope with this evil as they may. The majority of our truants come from homes that are either too weak or too indifferent to exercise any influence over the wayward boy. From this class of truants in our larger cities will come the larger per cent. of the criminals a few years hence. While this is sadly true in our white schools, it is fearful to contemplate its extent in the negro schools of the South. It is important that the school authorities in the larger towns should take steps to remedy this evil. All our larger cities are afflicted with a class of youthful criminals, particularly of the colored race, that begin their career in truancy. In our city, the co-operation of the judge of the police court with the school authorities has resulted in much good, and many wayward boys have been reclaimed. The youthful criminals when arrested and brought before the court are conditionally fined, and are discharged on probation. They are required to report periodically to the judge, or to some one that is made responsible for their conduct. School attendance or regular work is invariably required, and the boy, thus hedged about, is enabled to acquire habits of industry and honesty. Scores of cases have thus been restored to paths of virtue, and the number of youthful offenders reported by the police of the city has been materially decreased. This is not compulsory education; the police court of the city seeks to become a reformatory agency. Too often the methods of our courts serve to make criminals, rather than to reform them. I believe great results may be accomplished in this manner, even in the absence of legislation, without truant officers, truant schools or schools of correction.

The school comes far short of its duty to this class when it merely suspends or expels them. They should be either induced or compelled to be in the school. To send them out because they are a nuisance to the school, simply means the making of a far greater nuisance to society. The question with the school is not how to get rid of these discordant elements, these abnormal social types, but what can it do to redeem them for society and for the State.

The school is an agency for the salvation of society, and the sympathetic teacher can accomplish a great work for humanity by keeping in close touch with these unfortunate elements.

ATTENDANCE.

SUPT. WADE H. WOOD, SANDERSVILLE, GEORGIA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

I shall attempt to discuss this topic from the standpoint of the rural school, as it affects educational conditions in county districts. We have in our State, and I presume this is true of most other Southern States, about seventy-five per cent. of the total school population enrolled in our schools each year, and an average attendance of fifty per cent. The public school term in Georgia is five months, so that with an enrollment of seventy-five per cent, and an average of fifty per cent., we have only two and one-half months of public school term for the whole school population of the State. It may be readily seen that one-half of the promising boys and girls of the State are denied the opportunities of school each year. The people are, therefore, taxed for the expenditure of about twice as much money as they should be unless better additional attendance can be secured.

I wish to state very briefly some of the means by which I believe better attendance can be secured in our schools.

In numerous counties in this State there has heretofore prevailed a very lax and aimless system of school administration. This condition was perhaps largely due to efforts at conciliation, a desire to satisfy petty local demands and the hope on the part of school officials to popularize themselves with their constituents. As a result of such methods, a regrettable feeling of careless and irresponsible sentiment regarding schools has grown, and an attitude of indifference to the importance of good schools has been assumed by a large part of the common people. Further than this, these people have enjoyed the widest freedom in the control of local schools. Having been accustomed to this local control — though little qualified for the intelligent direction of schools in most instances — they look with extreme aversion upon the assumption of central authority on the part of school officials. This discouraging state of affairs has rendered it very difficult for progressive officials to institute improved methods in the schools of the State, and they are much embarrassed in inaugurating a more efficient system of administration.

So long as this lack of harmony obtains, so long as the people look with grave suspicion upon encroachment on their right to direct the local school affairs, we may expect an unfavorable outlook for education in the South. The education of the South today needs more than anything else, perhaps, leadership and intelligent direction. I believe, therefore, from my own personal experience, that central control of schools will go far toward the promotion of increased attendance. I mean by this that the school authorities should more largely assume control and the prerogative of the people should be contracted. The wisdom of such a course will suggest itself to thoughtful people. The further the school is removed from the personal contentions of local patrons and the dissipating effects of factions which exist in almost every school community in the South, the more hopeful may we be in expecting the rise and growth of prosperous and efficient schools. I would not by any means withhold from the people the enjoyment

of participation in the conduct of institutions so vitally linked to their social and moral welfare, but under the present plan of ultra democratic management of schools, the superintendent is often greatly handicapped in the perfection of improved systems. If the superintendent were given enlarged powers, he could more systematically direct the conduct of his schools.

Improved supervision would be another source of helpful influence. I must say it to the discredit of this State, but truthfully, that the average superintendent in Georgia has not been heretofore as proficient and progressive as he should have been. In most instances they were earnest and zealous, but were otherwise incompetent. It is gratifying, however, that the superintendent is more and more becoming an educator and important factor in the development of wholesome influences in the State, and less a mere place-filler or auditor of accounts.

They are becoming more sincerely interested and are studying with greater diligence the many problems which hinder the progress of their work. By improved supervision I mean, first of all, better professional preparation and training for the the superintendent's duties. In addition, the superintendent should be a man of sound judgment and wise conservatism, reinforced by a commanding personality, unyielding convictions of right, great breadth of vision, and unflagging persistency of fervent purpose. He should have much tact and diplomacy, and ought at all times to keep himself in touch with the community life of his county. He should be alive and glowing with intelligent enthusiasm. The superintendent is in much measure the pivot upon which turns the educational welfare of his constituency. In his wisdom he should induce the selection of better teachers. He should so forcefully stamp the impress of his administration upon the public responsiveness that a strong sentiment for the support of school shall be aroused. This important attainment is the chief hope of better attendance. Along with good supervision should come good boards of education. The superintendent,

however well fitted for his work, cannot hope to attain commendable results if his efforts be hampered by the narrow prejudices and conceit of an unappreciative and unsympathetic Board, from which he receives all his power as an official. Both should blend in consistent harmony their efforts and aims to make schools entirely adequate to the needs of their constituents, schools which will at once commend themselves to the hearty support and co-operation of the parents of the patrons whose higher life they are expected to conserve. School officials ought to be above the persuasion and corruption of popular clamor. They should not wait to be moved by conditions, but create conditions; not wait for opportunities, but make opportunities. A credulous public await their enlivened leadership, and are willing to follow one in whom they recognize possibilities of helpfulness to them and their own children.

The next means I shall mention is better trained teachers. The teacher, by preference of his or her important office, becomes the local leader of thought and life. The character of the teacher determines the public sentiment of the community. The teacher should, of course, have professional training. Besides, they should know and love children, as well as repose great confidence in their patrons. They ought to be able to organize and concentrate the co-operation and friendship of the school community. If they have enthusiasm, love for the teacher's office, generous preparation, tact in dealing with folks, insight into the nature of childhood, strong personality, executive ability, deep and ardent sympathy and appreciation of the great movement of education, the apparent hardships and trying situations will speedily yield to resources of their skill and the power of their wholesome influence. We most urgently need teachers of impressive individuality who can mold the community life, who can make the school the vitalizing center of their thought and action. Such a teacher is permitted a grasp which can command the awakened responsiveness of a simple and trusting people. A story is told of a man who was in the presence of a terrific explosion. His body was

filled with numberless fragments of flying steel. A skilled electrician made a powerful magnet, which, when the man was placed near it, drew from his bleeding flesh every fragment. Thus, it seems to me, we should have teachers of strong magnetism, who can draw from the communities the fragments of indifference, disorganization, prejudice, hatred, suspicion, distrust, aimlessness — everything which render insensible their usefulness — and leave them vigorously healthful to work in happy accord with their teacher. In a community where such a teacher is employed the patrons will make especial sacrifice to send their children to school. Let us have teachers of great proficiency. I am sure that every right-thinking man and woman looks with extreme regret and sorrow upon the fact that so many unprepared young men and young women, who have no adequate conception of the teacher's responsibilities, have almost free access to our school-rooms as teachers. Boys and girls barely through the high school, unmatured in thought and purpose, misled and perverted in estimating the teacher's work, are allowed to pose in the guise of teachers. Should it be any wonder that the South has been truant in educational progress when such puerile make-shifts form its life? Be it far from me to do grievous wrong to the thousands of noble young men and women who in self-sacrifice and patriotic devotion, have given up ambition, aspiration and hope, consecrated their all to the glorious advancement of our sunny Southland; they deserve an imperishable place in the hearts of our people. You will get my suggestion without further remark. It is important to have a strong teacher because attendance at our schools depends very much on the interest of the child. A good teacher of commanding personality and life becomes the ideal of the child. The child's love and admiration for such a teacher serves to attach him to the school. I know there are many instances of enforced absence which the child can not prevent, but often the reverence and cordial love for the teacher on the part of the child leads his parents to yield and permit him to follow his attachment back to school. I earnestly yearn for the

time when conditions are such in our country that we may contract the opportunities enjoyed by the crude and unskilled for crossing the threshold of the teacher's office. I am proud that the sentiment is now growing with the officials of our good State.

But underlying the employment of better superintendents and teachers is a lack of funds with which to offer them the same remuneration as their preparation and capacity will command in other professions. Many of our States appropriate large sums to the school fund, and I suspect they are doing enough along this line. I am pleased to have heard Dr. McIver's strong plea for local taxation for the financial support of schools. Local taxation, I believe, is the chief hope of educational uplift in the South today. The people, of course, pay the State taxes, which go into the general educational fund, but local taxation appeals more directly to the parent. They feel that the money secured by local tax comes more out of their own pockets, consequently, where such a tax is levied the parent is inclined to have his child more constantly in school, so that this tax has a direct influence upon school attendance, aside from the benefits to be had from the employment of better superintendents and teachers thus made possible. May we convert our people to local self-help.

Another important means to induce good attendance, I believe, is a graded system of schools. Those who are from rural communities of course can appreciate this more than those who have been accustomed to the graded schools of the cities. It has had a strong influence in my county. Under the direction of my able predecessor in Washington county, this State, a very satisfactory graded course of study was introduced. There has been since then a strong effort made to encourage our teachers to uniformly pursue this course in their teaching. They are appreciating its value to the success of their teaching, its benefit to the progress of the child; and they also realize that to well adapt themselves to this improvement they must have better training. I did not have time to investigate the facts, but I

believe that the introduction of this graded course of study has very materially stimulated attendance at our schools in Washington county; at any rate, graded schools induce better attendance. The child realizes that he will be demoted, and we all know that most children, like grown people, like very much to go forward. When boys or girls know that they may fall behind the other members of the class, and will not be allowed to take their places after an absence, they will make as little excuse for such absence as possible. It cannot be disputed, I think, that a good graded system of schools may be made one of the very best means by which increased attendance can be obtained. Aside from the incentive created by the child's unwillingness to fall behind his class, both children and parents regard with more respect and confidence the systematic conduct of a graded school. The graded school serves the two-fold purpose of awakening the child and the parent, and serves to convince the teacher of the necessity of better preparation. It is not to be denied, of course, that the introduction of a graded course may be attended with some degree of hardship at first, but that need not, and must not, discourage us. The larger part of our school children do not attend the supplementary terms of schools in the fall, but crowd into the public term in the spring, and by reason of this deplorable fact, a thorough grading of schools in such communities is rendered difficult. I believe, however, with good supervision and strong teachers capable of good organization, the apparent obstacles will largely disappear. The experiment is well worth the thought.

Still another important means of wholesome influence which I desire to mention is the school library. We are working earnestly to procure a library in every school in our county. Whatever serves to strengthen the child's attachment to the school intensifies his desire for constant and punctual attendance. The pupils may justly feel that the library belongs especially to them, and in consequence they are anxious to share in the pleasure and benefits of this invaluable accessory to correct school influence. Per-

haps most teachers in schools that enjoy the good fortune of a library have noticed with what zest and spirit their pupils regard their little libraries. It is a real inspiration. Mr. Stewart has spoken beautifully of libraries, through which children may commune with the world's choicest minds and share the richest thoughts of all literature. The cultural effect wielded by the library well justifies me in strongly advocating its establishment in every school. Then whatever else may attach the pupil to the school, it is supplemented by the library. The library widens the meaning of the school to the child, and by intelligent direction of the teacher it may be made to reach in its savory influence the usually dead and aimless atmosphere of the home; thus the home life of the community is invigorated and brought into active harmony with the spirit of the school. Should we be willing to say that where this pleasant situation obtains, better attendance should not be expected?

Combining with the other means above referred to, beautified and improved buildings and grounds have an important relation to school attendance. All people, with but few exceptions, love a beautiful and comfortable home; and will not the child love this kind of a schoolhouse? At most places in our county we have comfortable schoolhouses. They are not as attractive in appearance as they should be. Very recently my Board has consented to co-operate with communities in painting all schoolhouses. This is a significant indication of advancement which gratifies me beyond measure. The esthetic environment of the home and the school is, in my opinion, greatly concerned in the formation of good character in the child. It brings to the child and the parent the suggestion of ideal life. Added to the comfortable, painted building, beautified school grounds, should be well equipped school-rooms with tastily decorated walls. The child will take great pleasure in going to a school so delightfully surrounded, where they may be in the presence of a magnetic teacher, a teacher whom they always delight to associate with this happy place — the school-room. How long will the school officials of our

charming and sweet land of the South refuse to rightly regard the power of these silent but majestic forces which are so potent in the making of men and women? Point me to a community or county where there are beautified and well equipped school-rooms and I shall correctly find there a quickened educational spirit and life and a progressive school sentiment.

When the above-mentioned agencies fail to secure commendable attendance, our legislators should be asked to intercede. The state-organized society has no right, in economic jealousy for its own highest interest, to furnish means whereby its welfare may be promoted and not demand the protection afforded by a proper appropriation of this means. Therefore, if the blended harmony of the powerful influences cited above does not secure a consistent appreciation of the benefits of free and liberal government for self-protection, then the State ought to make attendance at schools compulsory. It would only be a progressive step fortifying the safety, security and sacred hopes of a free people; for a sane and substantial education is but the bed-rock of the nation's greatness.

Other phases of the topic have already been discussed, and as my time is up, I shall leave off with one other thought.

Teachers and school officials should embrace every chance to create a wholesome healthy public conscience. Keep the importance of the school constantly before your people. I have requested, pardon me to refer to it, our teachers to organize their respective communities into local co-operative school-aid boards, you might term it. They are to meet, and, under the leadership of the teacher, discuss topics effecting the welfare of their school. In this way valuable educational thought may be easily disseminated, and the community life will slowly but surely crystalize around the school as the social center of the community. It means much.

I believe that when these mighty forces are united they

shall melt into a tidal wave, and riding on its silvery crest, we shall be borne to the life more beautiful in the realm of the ideal.

RURAL LIBRARIES IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

HON. J. S. STEWART.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

Benjamin Franklin was once asked by a committee from a town in Massachusetts for some money to help furnish a bell for that community. He replied by sending some books and saying that he preferred to furnish sense to sound to the community. From that little village afterwards came a man named Horace Mann, who revolutionized the school system of America. He says that he got his inspiration for this from the books put into that school long before by Benjamin Franklin.

I feel sure that in discussing the question of school libraries I will have a sympathetic hearing, because this body of teachers and newspaper men is largely engaged in furnishing sense to the communities.

O, the evil of a book! A boy takes it to his room and pores over its pages; the influence of mother is forgotten, the prayers and precepts of the father are lost — all is forgotten in the pages of some "Diamond Dick" and "Jessie James." The injury to youthful minds derived from reading such literature, as enacted every day in America, is equal to that holocaust in Chicago yesterday.

O, the glory of a book! By it whether in mountain fastness or in the pine barrens of our Southland, any one can enter into this drawing-room of humanity where time and space are annihilated and hold converse with the best and wisest of all times. I believe it is the duty of the teachers of the South to see that Southern boys and girls have an introduction into this aristocracy of learning. It is the duty of these men and women to see that this right of the child

to the best literature of his race is not denied him. He has not this opportunity now. The teachers in the common schools complain of the lack of books; the teachers in the high schools complain, and a wail comes up from the college professors of the ignorance of the freshmen in literary studies. South Carolina has only sixteen rural school libraries in the State. Every State in the Union except Washington, Arizona and Nevada has set aside money for the establishment of libraries in the schools, except the Southern States. Only North Carolina has yet provided libraries for her children. Georgia has less than four hundred for all of her seven hundred thousand children. O, what great barrenness! Less than one hundred thousand dollars spent in the South for books, while the Northern and Western States spend over two millions of dollars annually! How shall we remedy this defect? How shall we give to these children of our country this privilege that belongs to our race? The only solution of this question is to put the library in the school and in every school.

It is right from an educational standpoint. Education is not mere reading and writing, but it has a broader sphere and every teacher knows how little is the amount of learning that comes from a text-book. All the reading course amounts to less than one of Scott's novels. It will enrich all our class-room studies; it will make history to glow as nothing else can; it will promote cheerfulness, and awaken the imagination of the child; it will extend observation and stimulate and correct thought; it will give a command of good language through association with the best authors; it will tend to educate the whole community. I do not think this library should be merly for the children, but I want it to be established for the whole community. The farmer should come here for information about his farm. I want the bulletins from the Agricultural Station and reference works for all the industries of the community in this library, so that the time will come when the libraries will educate the community from the cradle to the grave. Our State gives to the children four or five months

instruction each year, and if we will place in their reach this sense that Franklin spoke of, they can educate themselves throughout the year. During the long winter nights the child can have access to these treasures of literature, as well as in the heat of summer.

It is worth it from a moral standpoint. There is nothing that builds up the character like communion with great thoughts. We are all prone to take narrow views of life, to be wrapped up in things that are near and lose sight of the larger things, of the unseen and spiritual; but the book points all of these to the boy. It was thus with Alexander as he slept with the Iliad for a pillow; and with Paul, pressing toward the mark of the high calling in Christ Jesus; with Milton, longing to make his life a great poem, that he might write what the world would not willingly let die. It was thus with Washington and Lee and Webster, Clay and Calhoun, and all the great men of the country who had little college training, but depended largely on books supplied by their parents. What is the inspiration of our American sailor? It is the great history of our navy, without a stain upon its escutcheon, that nerves a Dewey, that prepares a Hobson for his equally glorious feat, or sends the Oregon rejoicing on its course around the continents ready to meet the enemy. So it is that character is formed by communion with great thoughts; and if in the future our boys of the South are to be men to fill the places in this great line of men, going back through twelve hundred years of history, we must acquaint them with their noble deeds. Strange indeed it is that we have so long kept from our children a literature which is incomparably the richest and noblest of all literature.

It is the only practical solution of the question. The home library is not sufficient. We all know how few books there was in the home. The Sunday School libraries will not solve the question; they are too meagre, divide the community, and are open one hour a week. We have all the machinery in the schools. The state superintendent can select five hundred or more books, the county school

superintendent can disburse the money and see that the books are cared for, the teacher can direct their use and awaken interest. We need no new machinery. We merely need the application of a small part of the school fund for the purchase of books for the community as all the Northern States do. North Carolina has put within the last three years, over one thousand libraries in that State; Kentucky has put books within the reach of every child, until in that State one county has over one hundred and sixteen libraries. Georgia, Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, Tennessee, Texas, South Carolina and Virginia have made no provision for supplying books. We want a law applying not more than one per cent. of the school money for this purpose, provided the communities will raise a similar amount. The negroes will be furnished proper reading in their schools and the whites would have the opportunities for reading equal to those of other sections. We have the constitutional right; if we have the right to establish a school system, certainly some of that money should be appropriated for books. Education means observation, reading, thought, and achievement, for I believe that all education ends at last in action. Our educational system is worthless unless we teach the arts of reading, thinking, of seeing and of doing. In accomplishing those ends books play a most important part next to the teacher. We have laws making a closed season for the beasts of the field, and the fowls of the air, and the fishes of the sea, but we have no law giving closed season for the child that each may have a few months in the school-room. We have laws against the adulteration of food, and the polluting of our streams. Give us laws that will furnish to all children good literature and keep them from the vicious literature that crowds the news-stands all over the State, stealing away the ambition of our children and sapping their ideals ere they are aware. I appeal to the members of the Southern Educational Association to give this good literature to our children. It seems that our teachers, Mr. President, are what Prentiss said of the Irish, "They are successful in all battles but

their own." They act on committees of every kind; sing in the choir; are secretary of this and president of that organization—but never think of rallying about the school, the preacher, the business men and the women of their community. Why can not we get these men and women organized for the improvement of the school? If we would appoint the preachers on a committee to raise money for a library; and the women to beautify the school, we would have more books within the school, better teaching, happier children, and more prosperous communities. The Southern boy would have a better chance without hurt to "the heathen Chinese." [Applause.]

I love to think of the library as a great tree, whose roots grow down into every stratum of life and into every mine of truth; whose trunk, strong and enduring, shall stand against time; whose branches shall grow out and cover with their benignant shade every home in the community; and opening upward shall be an inspiration for a higher life. Here will the old delight to come and listen to the shepherds of old, telling their tales anew under this hawthorne in the dale. Here will the husbandman come and in bucolic measures catch new meaning in his work, and go whistling over the furrowed land where peace and plenty abound. Here will the laborer come, and amid the buzz of saw and the whirr of machinery will find the dignity of labor as he converses with Palissy and Watts and Morse, who toiled while their companions slept. Here will the young and fair come, and as they listen to the strains of some Æolian harp, to pæan of the Greeks, to English battle hymn, or our own "America," will take courage and keep bright the fire of liberty. Let us plant this tree in every community, let us nurture it, and dig about it and prune it of all that is false and spurious. The showers of God's blessings will fall upon it; the sunlight of his love will shine upon it, causing it to bring forth much fruit. In the rustle of its leaves will be heard the grand anthems of the ages—the good, the beautiful and the true. [Applause.]

DISCUSSION.

SUPERINTENDENT BLAKE, SPARTANBURG, SOUTH CAROLINA.

If you will pardon me, I will give you in a very few minutes a personal experience of mine in connection with this subject, on the great importance of reading in our schools.

When I first commenced to teach school I was in a county in South Carolina, now Union County, where the land was so poor and the farmers were so poor that the county was called Pea Ridge. I had a school there for a short while. A young boy came to school, a boy about thirteen or fourteen years of age, and I asked him a few questions in order to find out into what class to put him. I put him into one of my more advanced classes. In a few days I found that that was not the place for him. I put him in a higher class. In a few days I found that he had gotten ahead of all the members of that class, and I was doing an injustice to him to put him there, so I put him in a higher class. He stayed there a week or two, and finally, in order to do justice to the boy's powers, I put him by himself. Very soon I found out that the young man knew more than I did about certain things, particularly about United States history, and he had a better general knowledge about the questions and about current events; more about the country than I did myself. I wanted to know why it was. I asked him a few questions about his life. He said that he was the son of a widow who lived in the community; his father had died several years before; he had only been to school a little while previous to coming to my school, and he interested me very much. It was my habit then to visit around through the community, and after a while I visited him at his home. I went about a mile and a half from the school. I found that he and his mother and one brother lived in a little log cabin, only one other house in the yard, and that was used for a kitchen and dining room. I talked to him that afternoon and found him wonderfully interesting in conversation, and I remember that we talked about some educational subjects. In the midst of the conversation he said, "I remember reading an article upon that subject some time ago," and he took out a little book about that size (indicating) and turned over the pages, and after running over two or three pages came to a little article he had put in there. He looked over it a few moments, closed the book and went into the house and out from under the bed he pulled a little box and went down into that box under a pile of papers that had been there for years evidently, pulled out one and said, "Here is the article I had reference to," and he read me there what he had said in connection with it on the subject we were discussing.

That pile of papers was the Youth's Companion. Suddenly it came to me,—there is the secret of the success of that young man's progress. I found he had been taking this Youth's Companion for years, and when he found a subject that interested him he put it in that box for future reference. By keeping up with current events, reading the best paper published in this country, he had so outstripped every young man in that community that he had gotten ahead of them. He did not go to school any more. Before he was twenty years old he became prominent in the politics of that county and was elected to the constitutional convention of our State. He is now one of the most prominent young lawyers of our State, making from fifteen hundred to two thousand dollars a year at his practice.

He is highly esteemed by the people of that community. I believe he knows more about constitutional law than any other young man in the State; for that matter, than a great many older men, and I believe we shall hear from that young man in the future.

This is just incidental to the establishment of the libraries in the communities. We must give our young people in our country communities and in our towns, as well as our cities, opportunities to read in connection with our public schools. We should introduce more good papers into our higher grades, and for that matter into other grades, and discuss current events. Get them interested in good periodical literature of that kind. I do not know anything that will have a better effect in producing a high order of intelligence in a community. [Applause.]

The President: I can certainly confirm what has been said about the libraries in the public schools. Some of it came under my observance in North Carolina, and I realize the revolution that has been worked in the rural communities by the placing of libraries among those people who scarcely ever saw a book before; old and young, all reading now, and new ideas are constantly being brought into their lives.

Miss Agnes Morris, of the State Normal School of Louisiana, said:

Mr. President:—I have just a word to say. Mr. Stewart has said beautiful things of the library movement, also the gentleman from South Carolina. I have just a suggestion to offer. We have found in our work when we ask the Woman's Club of the community to do something for us in the way of a library, that they almost always are not only willing, but take very much interest in it. You know these Women's Clubs want something to do. [Applause from the male members.] And the business of the teacher is to suggest, you know, and they are just delighted with

the idea of having something planned for them. It has been my experience for a great many years that ladies who teach, and have been in the profession for quite a long while, think that they have not time for the Women's Clubs, but that is a mistake. The Women's Clubs are getting to be throughout the South one of the greatest influences, and we do not always have to give suppers to raise the money, because most of the enlightened ladies in the teaching profession have husbands, and they just go down into the pockets of these husbands, you know, and the husbands, bless their hearts, are glad for them to do that. And so I think everybody who lives in the rural communities, whether it be a gentleman teacher or a lady teacher—the gentlemen are very influential with the Women's Clubs, if they only knew it, and especially an unmarried teacher in a community will do wonders if he will just ask the Women's Club to help him labor.

There was one suggestion I should like to emphasize in Mr. Stewart's speech, and that was about making the school the center of the community life. We had such a wonderfully good address over in Monroe, Louisiana, by a New York man not long ago on this subject. Unfortunately, you know, the people of the community who ought to hear these things do not hear them, it is only the poor teachers who know them already who hear them, but it happened that a great many of the people of the town were there and heard this lecturer on the Endowment of Schools, as a center of the life of the community; that is, social life, he said, and intellectual life also.

Now, a progressive man or woman in a small town can do a great deal through different organizations, even the Sunday school, to make the schools the center of the community life, and I am quite sure if you will try, gentlemen and ladies both, the Woman's Clubs will not be disappointing. [Great Applause.]

A Member: Mr. President, can you not give us a word as to how it is done? We want to know just exactly how rural libraries are acquired and managed.

The President: I wish I could tell you. Superintendent Ragsdale has had experience in this matter and had promised me to come and tell us what they are doing, but he is not here. I am sorry I cannot give a definite account of the management of these libraries. Some counties have entirely supplied the schools with them, other counties have very few, especially the mountain counties, but they are being distributed throughout the State, and I know there is no movement like it for the benefit of the people.

SOME SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING MANUAL
TRAINING.

ELIZABETH M. GETZ, CHARLESTON S. C.

One day last summer I heard manual training discussed by four prominent educators who had been conducting an institute in an Ohio town. They agreed that manual training in itself was good discipline but were of the opinion that as taught in many instances it did not develop the greatest possible amount of efficiency in the pupils taking it. Each instructor related an incident to show that he considered the pupils who had studied manual training were in some respects at a disadvantage compared with those who had not studied this subject.

One of the gentlemen said he had for years camped out with a party of boys for two weeks during each summer. He gave as his opinion that the boys who had taken manual training were frequently less resourceful in camp life than the others. If anything was to be made they were ready to say how it could be done with the proper tools if they had them, but when it came to making something else answer the purpose, as using a pocket knife or whatever implements were available, it was usually the other boys who did the work.

The criticisms given were not made by the opponents of manual training, but by thinking men who favored the subject. While admitting that manual training in many ways was exceedingly helpful, they felt that in actual practice it did not come up to what is usually claimed for it in theory.

Are not such criticisms worth reading? Taking for granted that in the case cited the fault may have been partly that the boys were naturally less able to adapt themselves to new environment than the others, or that they had been less accustomed to manual work in every-day life, it is well to consider seriously such criticisms in order to see how

much justice there is in them and at the same time to apply the remedies for their correction.

Unless we are training pupils in self-reliance and in the ability to cope with the various problems that are constantly arising both in and out of school, there is a serious defect in their education. This applies not alone to manual training but equally to almost all branches in the curriculum. To fit boys and girls for a successful career, to train them to become useful men and women is by most persons conceded to be the object of education.

There are two general plans of instruction, one or the other of which is frequently followed by manual training teachers: One is to adhere closely to a systematic progressive series of exercises, also to a sequence in making the models. Such models may have been planned by the teacher of the class, based somewhat on the course given at Nääs or at some other school, but adapted to local conditions, or they may be exactly as given at one of these schools. In this way the pupils are led along from one exercise to another and from one model to another in such easy succession of steps that they scarcely realize the difficulties.

Each exercise is repeated over and over again in the new models until it becomes a part of a firm foundation on which to build. This is desirable, but the pupils should be allowed many opportunities for applying their knowledge in other directions.

The other extreme in manual training is to break away entirely from a standard series of models and within more or less definite limits to allow the pupils to design their own. This leads to great uncertainty as to the difficulties to be overcome. The exercises involved in the making of one model may be very difficult, while in the next they may be very easy. This is a more dangerous method than holding rigidly to a series of models, as the pupils in designing their own are liable to undertake problems which they cannot solve, thus they lose time and often are discouraged in the attempt.

A middle course seems the best one. In the first place

we want to give our boys and girls a body of conscious knowledge, to be used by them when and where it is needed. They gain this and at the same time acquire a standard of beauty of form, etc., if the models in the series are planned with regard to good proportions, shape and purpose for which they are intended, also if the sequence of exercises is well arranged. Unless there is an opportunity for original work, under a certain amount of guidance, the pupils will not gain in the power of applying theory to practice.

If for every model in the course the pupils are required to make an original one involving some of the exercises previously given, as well, perhaps, as some that are altogether new, they will gain much in self-reliance and in power to put previously acquired knowledge to new purposes.

Adapt the course to the incidental needs of the pupils taking it. A plant label is undoubtedly a very convenient article for some persons, but unless the boy making it is interested in gardening, there are other articles more useful to him. Boys should be encouraged in constructing what they need in their games or work. Many an hour outside of school can be spent profitably in making kites, bats, looms, etc. It is not necessary to confine the pupils to the regular line of manual training, even at the appointed lesson hour. If you happen to know that base balls, tennis nets, or other articles are in demand, let the pupils make them. It may be the opportunity for winning the class to more earnest efforts in manual work.

The term "manual training" is a very comprehensive one. It really includes many branches not always considered when it is used in an educational sense. Basketry, bent iron, clay modeling, paper folding, weaving and netting are just as rightly classified as manual training subjects as knife or bench work in wood or iron.

The particular line of work to be pursued at a certain time or locality is often a question of great importance, as on this selection depends much of the success of the lessons.

In general, whatever calls for the most adaptation on the part of the pupils, both as to materials used and as to the use to which they can put the completed models, is the best.

Each form of manual training has its peculiar advantages in certain lines. Wood work requires more accuracy than clay modeling, but on the other hand clay modeling cultivates a delicacy of touch not easily acquired in any other way.

In all forms of manual training the cultivation of the artistic side of the child's nature is of great importance. By artistic work we mean not that which is highly decorated, but the beauty that results from consistent relationship in size of parts, form, texture, space relations and color. The way in which anyone can grow in these directions is through the study of really good models and in the exercise of judgment required in the designing and making of original ones.

If a match box is the object desired it must be made not only to most conveniently serve its purpose but it should be pleasing to the eye. Too often we neglect the artistic side of manual training in the constructive designs or we allow pupils to over-decorate their work. Fitness to purpose should be the first consideration; when this is more widely recognized we will have fewer incongruous objects about us than we now have. Small inverted china hats for match holders, dishes in the shape of flowers, vases that topple over with the slightest jar or chairs that are so fragile as to warn us against their use, all testify to the necessity for emphasizing this side in our educational manual training.

When the public mind is educated to the point where inartistic articles are not salable, they will no longer be so generally on the market.

Proportion has more to do with beauty than with use and is essential in a beautiful object; no amount of decoration can make a poorly proportioned object pleasing to the sight; decoration, if there is any, should be subor-

dinated to the thing to which it is applied. Far better no ornamentation at all than that it should be inharmonious or that it should be used to cover defects of form or construction.

Color is often one of the most abused features of manual training. The combinations in paper folding, weaving, basketry, etc., are too frequently of a character to offend the eye of the artistically educated and to dull the color sensibility of the pupils using them. Unless one is gifted in this direction, it requires a study of the laws governing the harmony of colors to combine them successfully. Rather than produce discordant effects, it is better to work within certain limits. One color with a neutral, that is, black, white or gray is usually pleasing in any material; or generally one mode harmony is safe, that is, two or more tints or shades of any one color.

Many able teachers are working along these lines and with such marked success that it seems worth while trying some of them if in any way our work is open to criticism.

PUBLIC AID TO EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH.

CHANCELLOR WALTER B. HILL, UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA.

The subject naturally divides itself into three heads:

- I. Local Taxation for Schools.
- II. State Support.
- III. National Aid.

I. As to local taxation, it is fortunate that in the South the friends of education can conjure with the potent wand of the name of Thomas Jefferson. Local taxation by districts for the education of all the children of the community is the true Jefferson democracy. His definition of the function of primary education is classic and cannot be too often cited:

"I. To give to every citizen the information he needs for the transaction of his own business.

"2. To enable him to calculate for himself, and to express and preserve his ideas, his contracts and accounts, in writing.

"3. To improve, by reading, his morals and faculties.

"4. To understand his duties to his neighbors and his country, and to discharge with competence the functions confided to him by either.

"5. To know his rights; to exercise with order and justice those he retains; to choose with discretion the fiduciary of those he delegates; and to notice their conduct with diligence, with candor, and with judgment.

"6. And, in general, to observe with intelligence and faithfulness all the social relations under which he shall be placed."

Jefferson believed that these objects should be carried out by political units smaller than the county organizations. This was the result of his decentralizing theory,—his doctrine of the distribution of political power. In the South generally this form of public aid to education is coming more and more into adoption. In Georgia a constitutional restriction that has hitherto fettered the people in their freedom of initiative and action on this subject is soon, if all the signs of the times are to be trusted, to be repealed. This is not surprising; for white citizens of Georgia, whether Democrats, regular or irregular; whether Populists, or even Republicans, all declare themselves to be Jeffersonian Democrats. It was with almost inspired tact that the Southern Education Board adopted for its motto a Jeffersonian cry, "Preach a Crusade Against Ignorance."

II. As to State Aid, it is gratifying to know that the principle of State support of the public school system for the education of all children of the commonwealth is now recognized in all of the Southern States. Out of the unspeakable indignities and calamities of the Reconstruction, one great good emerged, namely, the public school system. Upon the return to power of the white citizens of the State, they wisely practiced the doctrine "Prove all things and hold fast to that which is good." Knowing that the public school system was good, they wisely refused to be governed by blind prejudice against its origin, and so retained it, to the inestimable advantage of the States.

The efforts of the Southern States in their poverty to maintain a public school system is a record which will do them everlasting honor. Along with the optimistic fact that the public school system exists and is being supported, we must accept the pessimistic fact that a great mass of illiteracy exists in the Southern States. In Georgia, for instance, it is not pleasant to contemplate the truth that the white illiterate voters in the State exceed in number the white voters in our three largest cities ; and yet it is some consolation to State pride to know that Georgia is by no means at the bottom of the list. The public school system in each State is slowly and inadequately making headway against this illiteracy, but so slowly and so inadequately as hardly to keep pace with the increase of population. The slowness and inadequacy are due in large part to the comparative poverty of our State treasuries. When we put the two facts together, we may trace both to the same cause. By an act justified to the conscience of Lincoln only as a war measure, the bulk of the wealth of the South was destroyed without compensation. The illiteracy of the South, so far as it is negro illiteracy, is due directly to slavery, and so far as it is white illiteracy, is due indirectly to slavery. All the elements of the Southern situation, both the illiteracy and the inability to meet it, must be traced to a cause that was national in its origin, influence and present effects ; and this brings us to the third head of the subject : National Aid to Education.

III. Before going further it may be well to bring out a little more clearly the National responsibility for the conditions of the Southern problem. The slave-trade was an inheritance of all the colonies from the mother country. From England we brought by adoption the common law, the Christian religion, and slavery. The common law had in it the spirit of liberty, destined ultimately to be an agency in undermining slavery. Christianity had in it the spirit of love, destined ultimately to be an agency in the destruction of the right of man to have property in man ; but the common law, Christianity and the slave-trade were

joint inheritances, and originally were not deemed to be uncongenial inheritances, of the colonies from the old world. An illustration of the colonial point of view is to be found in a letter of the Reverend Cotton Mather:

NO MALICE.*

"September ye 15, 1682.

"To ye Aged and Beloved, Mr. John Higginson:

"There is now at sea a ship called the Welcome, which has on board an hundred or more of the heretics and malignants called Quakers, with W. Penn, who is the chief scamp, at the head of them.

"The general court has accordingly given secret orders to Master Malachi Huscott, of the brig Porpoise, to waylay the said Welcome, slyly, as near the Cape of Cod as may be, and make captive the said Penn and his ungodly crew, so that the Lord may be glorified, and not mocked on the soil of this new country with the heathen worship of these people.

"Much spoil can be made by selling the whole lot to Barbadoes, where slaves fetch good prices in rum and sugar, and we shall not only do the Lord great service by punishing the wicked, but we shall make great good for his minister and people.

"Master Huscott feels hopeful, and I will set down the news when the ship comes back.

"Yours in ye bowels of Christ,

"COTTON MATHER."

This shows the toleration with which slavery and the slave-trade were regarded in the early history of the colonies. It is difficult for us in these days to realize for how long a time and up to how recent a date this point of view prevailed. How short a step takes us back to the past ! It was not until 1808, less than one hundred years ago, that the slave-trade was forbidden by national law. You have heard the old saw that "Prohibition don't prohibit" (which, by the way, if prohibition be right, is only a strong argument for it and not at all an argument against it). The slave trade, unlicensed, adopted the usual resort to crime, the "blind tiger." Some of the slaves from the Wanderer, the last slave ship that landed on the Georgia coast, in 1858,

*Article written by Wilburn Hall, 26 Century Mag. 115).

were transferred to plantations on the Georgia coast. In the museum of the University of Georgia is an idol which was found in the possession of one of these savages. They, and perhaps the very one who worshiped this god of stone, received only eight years after they emerged from the jungles of Africa, a coronation greater than that of Edward VII., the coronation of American citizenship. I am told that a few of these savages transferred from the Wanderer are still living in our State at an advanced age, and the statement is not at all improbable. How close this brings us in point of time to the worst horror of the system of slavery, the slave-trade. We think of Gladstone as one of our contemporaries, and the masterly biography just given to the world by Mr. Morley has made his character more real to the world at large than perhaps it ever was before. Yet he, in early life, the "rising hope of the stern and unbending Tories," first opened his mouth in Parliament to defend the interests of his father and other Englishmen in slavery in the West Indies.

A census of the State of Pennsylvania showed sixty slaves in that State in 1840, and some in the State of New York in the same year, although 1827 had been fixed as the period for the expiration of slavery in New York. In 1840 there were 674 slaves in New Jersey, and in 1850, 236. In 1857 it seemed to so dispassionate an observer as James Martineau, in England, that the United States had become "the slave empire of the West." But, nearer still, it was in 1860 that the slave ship *Cora* was fitted out in a Northern harbor and in August of that year was captured with a full cargo of slaves by the "*Constellation*."

But the most striking and startling evidence of the long endurance of the slave-trade is furnished in the judicial career of that great New England jurist, Joseph Story, and the biography by his eminent son, the author and sculptor, Mr. W. W. Story. The biographer writes:

"It was at this time that my father's attention became directed to the slave trade. In the course of his circuits he had learned that, although prohibited alike by law and humanity, it was still

carried on to a considerable extent in the various seaports of the New England States; and that the fortunes of many men of prominence were secretly invested in its infamous traffic. The conscience of the North was then less sensitive upon this subject than it is now. Slavery itself had hardly disappeared in New England, and the slave trade was winked at. A man might still have a position in society and claim consideration as a gentleman, nay, as a Christian, while his ships were freighted with human cargoes, and his commerce was in blood and pain of his fellow creatures. The practice was publicly and abstractly inveighed against; but was secretly and practically indulged in. The chances of great fortunes in that trade inflamed the cupidity and deadened the conscience of men among the State of my father's circuit. This was especially the case in Rhode Island, which, lying furthest south, where slavery, 'like a mildewed ear, blasted its wholesome brother,' was exposed to more temptations and had larger conveniences for carrying on the trade than the more northern States. It is notorious that many large fortunes there and elsewhere were the bloodmoney of the slave trade, and 'owed their existence to the wretched cargoes which survived the horrors of the middle passage."

In one of his charges to the grand jury, Mr. Justice Story, after reciting the enactments of Congress and State Legislatures, said:

"Under such circumstances it might well be supposed that the slave trade would in practice be extinguished; that virtuous men would, by their abhorrence, stay its polluted march, and wicked men would be overawed by its potent punishment. But unfortunately the case is far otherwise. We have but too many melancholy proofs, from unquestionable sources, that it is still carried on with all the implacable ferocity and insatiable rapacity of former times. Avarice has grown more subtle in its evasions; it watches and seizes its prey with an appetite quickened rather than suppressed by its guilty vigils. American citizens are steeped up to their very mouths (I scarcely use so bold a figure) in this stream of iniquity. They throng to the coast of Africa under the stained flags of Spain and Portugal, sometimes selling abroad their cargoes of despair, and sometimes bringing them into some of our southern ports, and there, under the forms of the law, defeating the purpose of the law itself, and legalizing their inhuman but profitable adventures."

Respecting this judicial utterance, the biographer says:

"This charge produced no small sensation at the places where

it was delivered. It aroused at once the passions and the fears of those engaged in the slave trade. It quickened the consciences of many who had stood idly by and suffered the iniquity in silence, and it wounded the false honor and pride of others. It was then so new and bold an act to denounce the slave trade, and to affix to it its true stigma, that even many who opposed it, deemed, nevertheless, that the tone of the charge was not only exaggerated, but unbecoming the place from which it was delivered. The newspapers of that day publicly denounced my father; and one among them in Boston declared that any judge who would deliver such a charge ought to be 'hurled from the bench.'"

If the two sections should bandy words on this subject, each could certainly fix a share of the guilt on the other, and neither could absolve itself. The honors, or rather dishonors, are easy, and this is simply another way of saying that the responsibility for slavery was national, was shared by both North and South, and, therefore, every obligation growing out of it is in every sense a national burden. History attests the fact that the first fugitive slave law was embodied in the articles of the New England Confederacy of 1643. Perhaps Henry Grady gave the pleasantest version of this story, when he said in his New England Society speech: "Your fathers, not to be blamed for parting with what did not pay, sold their slaves to ours, not to be praised for knowing a paying thing when they saw it." Whether or not this sounded pleasantly at the time to a New England audience, the truth embodied in it is now thoroughly recognized, and in the issue of the Outlook of December 26th, 1903, the following statement occurs:

The responsibility for the presence of the negro in the country rests equally on the North and on the South, and the punishment for slavery has fallen, and is falling, equally on both sections of the country. The North got rid of slavery largely because of economic conditions; slavery was fastened upon the South largely because of economic conditions; these facts ought never to be forgotten by the Northern man who attempts to discuss the slavery question.

In this fact lies the equity of the South to have national aid in dealing with her illiteracy. Such aid could be

extended only by a general law recognizing the relative need of each State as being proportionate to its illiteracy, but, frankly, in view of the facts already stated, the South would, of course, receive the largest benefit from such national aid. This quasi sectional character of the problem, however, would be no barrier. The fact that general laws may have sectional bearings has not stood in the way of large national appropriations for the Mississippi, nor large national appropriations for irrigation in the West. These are problems both sectional and national. An illustration more to the point is to be found in the Morrill Bill, of 1862, under which grants of public lands were made in aid of education, which bill has been amended by a supplementary act in 1890, carrying additional appropriations.

This act, by the way, settles the constitutionality of national aid to education. It will be remembered that the Morrill Bill originally passed Congress in 1859 and was vetoed by President Buchanan, upon the narrow constitutional theories then prevailing. The fact that the bill afterwards became law and that all the States of the Union have for a quarter of a century taken benefits under the act, may be certainly considered as conclusive on the question of the constitutionality of such legislation.

We all remember the Blair Bill of some twenty years ago. Many of us who followed the subject at that time doubtless rejoiced in its defeat, and if we did not rejoice in its defeat then, we do rejoice in it now; for the scheme of the Blair Bill was essentially academic. It was predicted upon the erroneous idea upon which Northern private philanthropy proceeded immediately after the war, namely, that the children of the negro race were ready and ripe for the culture for which the children of the Anglo-Saxon race had been fitted by long centuries of slow development. The results were disappointing. They were worse than disappointing; they were in many cases exasperating and grotesque. If the Blair Bill had become law, there is scarcely any reason to doubt that its administration would

have produced the same disappointment. It is not surprising that some Southern Senators were leaders in the attack on the Blair Bill, although its provisions were designed to benefit the South largely more than any other section; and, on the other hand, it is not surprising that at that period of time Senators of other sections were not prepared to accept the liberal and just view that the administration of such a fund should be confided to local authorities in the Southern States. The situation on both points has probably now changed. The change on the latter point is due to what Mr. Cleveland described as "the growing confidence on the part of the North in the respectable white people of the South." If, therefore, Congress should again take up this subject, and furnish national relief for what is essentially a national burden, we are now in a position to avoid the mistakes of the past, and such legislation would be characterized probably by three features:

1. The administration of the law, although under the general supervision perhaps of the National Bureau of Education, would practically be entrusted to the State authorities.

2. The benefit of the act would probably be conditioned by the provision that the aid should be given only to those States which would at least maintain or perhaps increase their present appropriations.

3. The education provided for would, of course, be such as to accomplish the objects outlined by Thomas Jefferson, as constituting the principles of primary education, and yet, at the same time, would be principally industrial and agricultural, so as to be adapted to the real needs of the masses. Tuskegee and Hampton have within the last decade furnished the general models upon which such education should proceed.

It may be well to call attention again and again to the fact that 85 per cent. of those in the South engaged in gainful occupations are engaged in agriculture. There is a tremendous and pathetic significance in the present situation: four-fifths of all the people engaged in one form of

earning a livelihood, and the education of this enormous number unrelated to their life work. The greatest demand upon educational philanthropy and pedagogic genius in the South, and the strongest plea for national aid, lies in the direction of relating education to the life and work of the agricultural masses. Since, in any event, a long time would necessarily elapse before national aid can be secured and before a system of administration could be devised, it is fortunate that the machinery already exists which could be made available for meeting the most urgent need of the situation. The State colleges of agriculture are already in active and useful operation in all the States. Increased appropriations would enable them to undertake, through institutes and traveling teachers, to carry education in agriculture, sanitation and food to the people in agricultural districts. It is not enough simply to have a college and to say to the people that they may come if they will. Too few are able to come, and too few realize the necessity and advantage of coming. As the State has brought justice to the doors of the people through her judicial system of supreme courts, superior courts, and local courts in each district, so the State should bring education to the doors of the people through colleges, high schools and local schools in communities. An experiment which has recently been undertaken in Canada, upon the gift of a great Canadian philanthropist and patriot of \$1,000,000, furnishes many helpful suggestion in the problem now considered. A part of the Canadian scheme is to extend agricultural education as taught by the best experts to the people throughout the whole country, by having such experts itinerate from school to school. In some such way alone will it be possible to arouse the masses to the need and bring to them the benefit of the education which their life work demands.

And, finally, if national aid to education is undertaken, it would be judicious if a measure on that subject should be framed in the South and should be presented in Congress by some leading Southern man. It was not fortunate for the success of the former measure on this subject that it

emanated from a representative of the Northern section. It cannot be claimed that there is at present any considerable body of public opinion in the South formed on the subject of national aid to education. It cannot be said that there is opposition to it — the simple fact is that the matter has not been in the public thought. The time has now come for discussion and for agitation. If the considerations which have been here advanced are sound, then none of the objections which led to the fortunate defeat of the Blair Bill are in the slightest degree in the way of present legislation, which can avoid all the fatal objections urged against that measure. I believe that the defeat of the former proposition was most fortunate in every respect, but I believe with equal faith that the time has now come when the proposition altered in the light of the experience of the last twenty years is opportune and opens the way for national justice to the South, struggling under the double burden of inadequate resources and inadequate education: justice long delayed.

GEORGE PEABODY AND THE WORK OF THE PEABODY FUND.

BY HON. HOKE SMITH, ATLANTA, GA.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

It is not my purpose tonight to present an eulogy upon George Peabody, but I desire that the people of the South should know more of his simple life and his wonderful deeds—more of the man who declared education to be “a debt due from present to future generations,” and who, above all others combined, paid that debt for us. Words of praise are not equal to the bare record of his deeds.

George Peabody was born February 18, 1795,, at Danvers, Mass. He obtained the limited education his parents could afford from the common schools of the parish during the years 1803 to 1807, inclusive. But, to use his own language,

"To the principles there inculcated, he owed much of the foundation for such success as Heaven was pleased to grant him during a long business life."

At the age of eleven he went to work in a country store in the town where he was born. In this store he worked until he was sixteen, when he joined a brother at Newburyport, who was engaged in the dry goods business, and by whom he was employed for nearly two years. The store of his brother was burned, and George Peabody was left without a position.

He very soon obtained work with his uncle at Georgetown, and was given the place of commercial assistant. In the first two positions which he held it can only be said he manifested industry and close attention to business. In his work at Georgetown, though still in his teens, he began to display that peculiar ability which won for him his great success in after life. His honesty was accepted without question, his tact was unusual. He everywhere won friends and secured trade. After spending nearly two years with his uncle, he was offered a partnership in a wholesale drapery business by Mr. Elisha Riggs. Mr. Riggs proffered to furnish the money, and young Peabody was to handle the business. The only difficulty in closing the contract was due to the fact that Mr. Peabody was under age.

With tireless energy and perseverance he conducted the partnership of Riggs & Peabody, and he was so successful that in 1815 the house was moved to Baltimore, that a wider field might be found for their enterprise. The firm here engaged in a general wholesale dry goods business. Seven years later, so large were its operations, that branch houses were established in Philadelphia and New York. In 1830 Mr. Riggs retired, and George Peabody became the head of what was then one of the largest firms engaged in the general mercantile business in the United States.

About eight years later he moved to London, having there established the banking house of George Peabody & Company, and for a quarter of a century thereafter he was actively engaged in business as the head of this firm.

The bulk of his fortune was made through the London banking house. How much he accumulated at any one time cannot be told, for all through his successful business life he was constantly contributing to worthy causes.

Phoebe A. Hanford, in her *Life of George Peabody*, records the following as the more important public gifts of Mr. Peabody:

To the State of Maryland for negotiating the loan of \$8,000,000.....	\$ 60,000
To the Peabody Institute, Baltimore, Md.....	1,500,000
To the Southern Education Fund.....	3,000,000
To Yale College.....	150,000
To Harvard College.....	150,000
To Peabody Academy, Massachusetts.....	140,000
To Phillips Academy, Massachusetts.....	25,000
To Peabody Institute, at Peabody, Mass.....	250,000
To Kenyon College, Ohio.....	25,000
To Memorial Church in Georgetown, Mass.....	100,000
To Homes for the Poor in London.....	3,000,000
To Libraries in Georgetown, Mass., and Thetford Vt....	10,000
To Kane's Arctic Expedition.....	10,000
To different Sanitary Fairs.....	10,000
To unpaid moneys advanced to uphold the credit of States	40,000
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	\$8,470,000

The same author, Phoebe A. Hanford, states that this list does not include a number of donations, ranging from \$250 to \$1,000, extending from the year 1835 to 1869.

At his death he left property estimated at \$4,000,000. Of this amount, he donated \$1,000,000 to charities, and divided the remainder among his relatives. Some time prior to his death, he had divided \$1,500,000 among his relatives.

To fully appreciate the extent of his generous donations, we must remember that he died November 4, 1869, and that few men had accumulated at that time an amount equal to the sums he gave away.

It has been justly stated that the munificent charities which have made the name of George Peabody a household word in two hemispheres were not the promptings of temporary vanity or of a sudden freak of old age to win

the applause of mankind. On the contrary, they were but the fulfillment of a long cherished design formed in his own mind more than a quarter of a century before his death, which had constituted his chief incentive to the acquisition of wealth. "His gains he sought to obtain not as an end, but as a means to an end, not with a view to himself, but with a view to others. He held himself to be a debtor to his kind and his own millions were used in the beneficent discharge of that debt."

Pauperism and crime aroused in him no maudlin sentiment, but he sought, by the wise and earnest use of his fortune, to prevent either from existing. He not only gave freely, but he brought to bear in giving the same intelligent judgment as to the needs of others which had made it possible for him to be in a position to give.

That you may realize how fully his character was appreciated in two continents, I wish to call your attention to a few incidents which occurred shortly before his death and to the international recognition of his good works immediately following his death.

In 1866 he was about to sail for America. The merchants and capitalists of London showed their appreciation by erecting a costly statue to Mr. Peabody to be placed in one of the squares of London. He was tendered by the Queen a baronetcy, and the Grand Cross of the Order of Bath, both of which he declined. The Queen thereupon expressed to him in writing the gratitude of England for the princely munificence by which he had sought to relieve the wants of the poor subjects residing in London, and, with assurances of her personal feeling, requested as a mark of appreciation that he would accept a portrait of herself.

Upon his death, in compliance with the public wish to hold a funeral service in London, his body was placed in Westminster Abbey, and the funeral services there were conducted by the Bishop of London. They were attended by the Prime Minister, the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Gladstone, the Lord Mayor, and many others. The stores of London closed during the funeral services.

Mr. Peabody had designated the place of his birth as the place of his burial. The Queen of England furnished the largest and handsomest man-of-war of England, The Monarch, to convey his body to America. The Emperor of France detailed a French vessel, and the President of the United States an American vessel to accompany The Monarch across the Atlantic.

By a joint resolution of Congress, and in the language of the resolution: "The President of the United States was authorized to make such preparation for the reception of the body of our distinguished philanthropist, as it merited by his glorious deeds, and in a manner commensurate with the justice, magnanimity, and dignity of a great people."

The City Council of Baltimore and the Governor of Maryland made public acknowledgments of his great services to the City of Baltimore and the State of Maryland. The Legislature of Massachusetts declared, among other things, in a resolution which was passed, that Mr. Peabody had "won for himself the admiration of his countrymen, and left his life and character to future generations as the model of the true American citizen."

The newspapers of both continents were filled with columns of tributes to his noble life.

Victor Hugo wrote of him: "America has reason to be proud of this great citizen of the world, and great brother of all men, George Peabody. Peabody has been a happy man who would suffer in all sufferings, a rich man who would feel the cold and hunger and thirst of the poor. Like Jesus Christ, he had a wound in the side. This wound was the misery of others. It was not blood that flowed from this wound; it was gold which now came from a heart.

"On this earth there are men of hate and men of love. Peabody was one of the latter. It is on the face of these men that we may see the smile of God."

Louis Blanc wrote of him: "The death of so good a man as George Peabody proved himself to be is a calamity in which the whole civilized world ought to share. It was not the kind-hearted Republican trader who was honored by

the fact of being consigned to rest in Westminster Abbey, but rather those who were considered to be worthy of sleeping there their last sleep, on account of their rank, not of their virtue."

We may well regard the crowning work of his life to have been the donation of nearly \$3,000,000 to the cause of education in the South. We should bear in mind that this donation came in 1866, from one whose sympathies in the struggle through which the nation had just passed were with the Union, but who at the last declared that never during the war or since had he allowed the contest or the passions engendered by it to interfere with the usual relations and firm friendships which he had for a very large number of the people of the South.

Mr. Peabody created the trust through a letter to Hon. Rob. C. Winthrop, of Massachusetts, and a number of others, selected about equally from the Northern and Southern States. Extracts from this letter will give the clearest comprehension of the trust. They are as follows:

"Gentlemen:—I beg to address you on a subject which occupied my mind long before I left England. I refer to the educational needs of those portions of our beloved and common country which have suffered from the destructive ravages and not less disastrous consequences of civil war.

"With my advancing years, my attachment to my native land has but become more devoted. My hope and faith in its successful and glorious future have grown brighter and stronger; and now, looking forward beyond my stay on earth, as may be permitted, to one who has passed the limit of three score and ten years, I see our country, united and prosperous, emerging from the clouds which still surround her, taking a higher rank among the nations, and becoming richer and more powerful than ever before.

"But to make her prosperity more than superficial, her moral and intellectual development should keep pace with her material growth; and, in those portions of our nation to which I have referred, the urgent and pressing physical needs of an almost impoverished people must, for some years, preclude them from making, by unaided effort, such advances in education, and such progress in the diffusion of knowledge among all classes, as every lover of his country must earnestly desire.

"I feel most deeply, therefore, that it is the duty and privilege of the more favored and wealthy portion of our nation to assist those who are less fortunate; and with the wish to discharge as far as I may be able my own responsibility in this matter, as well as to gratify my desire to aid those to whom I am bound by so many ties of attachment and regard, I give to you, gentlemen, most of whom have been my personal and especial friends, the sum of one million dollars to be by you and your successors held in trust, and the income thereof used and applied in your discretion for the promotion and encouragement of intellectual, moral or industrial education among the young of the more destitute portions of the Southern and Southwestern States of the Union; my purpose being, that the benefits intended shall be distributed among the entire population, without other discrimination than their needs and the opportunities of usefulness to them.

"All vacancies among your number by death, resignation or otherwise shall be filled by your body, as soon as conveniently may be, and having in view an equality of representation so far as regards the Northern and Southern States.

"I furthermore give to you the power, in case two-thirds of the trustees shall, at any time after the lapse of thirty years, deem it expedient to close this trust, and any of the funds which at that time shall be in the hands of yourselves and your successors, to distribute not less than two-thirds among such educational or literary institutions, or for such educational purposes as may be determined, in the States for whose benefit the income is now appointed to be used. The remainder may be distributed by the trustees for educational or literary purposes wherever they may deem it expedient.

"In making this gift, I am aware that the fund derived from it can but aid the States which I wish to benefit in their own exertions to diffuse the blessings of education and morality; but if this endowment should encourage those now anxious for the light of knowledge and stimulate to new efforts the many good and noble men who cherish the high purpose of placing our great country foremost, not only in power, but in the intelligence and virtue of her citizens, it will have accomplished all that I can hope.

"With reverent recognition of the need of the blessings of Almighty God upon this gift, and with the fervent prayer that, under His guidance, your counsels may be directed for the highest good of present and future generations in our beloved country, I am, gentlemen, with great respect,

"Your humble servant,

"GEORGE PEABODY."

About a year later he visited again the United States, and

increased by more than a million dollars the Southern Educational Fund. In his letter communicating this second gift, among other things, he said: "I beg to take this opportunity of thanking with all my heart the people of the South themselves for the cordial spirit in which they have received this trust, and for the energetic efforts which they have made for carrying out the plans which have been proposed."

As I have only recently become a member of the Peabody Board of Trustees, I could, with no feeling of hesitation, dwell upon the great service which has been rendered the South through the use of the Peabody Trust. But you already know how, by the wise distribution of nearly \$3,000,000 derived from this fund, public education has been stimulated, first, in the establishment of local systems in towns and cities, and, second, in the establishment of normal schools in every Southern State.

Under the leadership of Dr. Sears, one of the noblest and wisest of educational statesmen, the Peabody fund came to the cities of the South, where no intelligent and organized system of education existed. Changed conditions rendered the private schools of ante-bellum days no longer effective. Funds were rarely available at once for well equipped public schools. The people were impoverished, and a desire for an increase of taxation was hardly to be expected.

But, going from city to city, Dr. Sears furnished from the Peabody Fund part of the money required to begin and conduct for one or two years public schools. Once inaugurated in a city, their value was so apparent that taxation sufficient for their continuance followed the period when the Peabody Fund ceased to contribute.

Thus the fund was used with powerful effect, until now there is scarcely a village in the South of two thousand inhabitants without a public school system.

I do not mean that all the credit is due to the Peabody Fund for this condition, but I do know that Dr. Sears, with

the funds under his care, greatly aided to make rapid progress of city school development.

Then came the time when normal schools were needed.

Dr. Sears used the Peabody Fund to inaugurate the first normal school of the South, which was located by him in the city of Nashville. Too much credit cannot be given to the benefits derived throughout the South from this institution, especially during the first twenty years of its existence. A very much greater proportion, however, of its scholars were from Tennessee than from other States, and it became necessary that local State normals should be inaugurated throughout the South. The Peabody funds were used freely to help start normal schools in most of the Southern States.

The normal schools, like the city public schools, when once thoroughly established received support from their respective States, so that today State normal schools in many of the Southern States spend more money than the Nashville normal school derives from the State of Tennessee and from the Peabody Board.

The public school systems of the cities and the normals of the States, being now thoroughly organized, what is the next field for great work in the South open to the use of the Peabody Fund?

It can hardly be doubted that the rural school problem is the serious question connected with the growth of educational facilities for the children of the Southern States. The rural districts are sparsely settled, and separate schools must be provided for the two races.

How is the expense to be borne of furnishing suitable school facilities with sufficient teachers in reach of scholars so numerous as to justify the expenditure?

At present most of the rural schools last but five months in the year. A competent teacher cannot be expected to engage in one-half a year's work with no position open for the other half of the year. The schools must be conducted for the full school year. The children must be brought together so that more than one teacher can be engaged in each school. Rural graded schools are as necessary as

similar schools in the cities. The problem must be worked out, and the tax payers must, by experience, be brought to desire their maintenance.

Four-fifths of the children of the South live in rural sections. The undeveloped agricultural resources of the South are almost limitless. The cotton product alone will bring during the present year nearly \$700,000,000. The yield from diversified products will be measured only by the intellectual development of the children of the section.

Here I think is offered the great opportunity to meet the future for much of the income from the Peabody Fund. It can be used in the rural school work as it was formerly used by Dr. Sears in the city school work, and a harvest fully as rich with beneficent results is assured.

I do not mean that the contributions are to be withdrawn from the normal schools of the States, but I do mean that the time has passed when a necessity exists to pay scholars to attend a normal school outside of their own State, when a normal of their own State is within their reach at far less expense. The fund heretofore used in connection with the Nashville normal to pay the expenses to that school of scholars from other States can be used with great effect to help push on the work of rural schools. Part of the fund, perhaps, might be used with wisdom to investigate and determine how best a practical system of industrial education can be introduced into the rural schools of the South, for no school can accomplish its highest service which does not have in view the practical training of children for active work in their proper spheres of life.

May I not call upon the educators before me from all parts of the South to carry this view into your work, whether you be engaged in rural or city schools; whether you be engaged in graded schools, high schools or colleges. What the South needs above all else is men specially trained to handle the various opportunities for development which the untouched resources of the section offer.

I do not criticise the earnest desire of the instructor to educate a pupil to be a man, noble and generous, but I do

urge that the boys of the South be educated to do acts noble, generous and useful.

If the criticism is made that I am urging the material in education, and that the classical is necessary to develop the highest type of manhood, I need not enter into argument to refute the charge. I only reply that I will wait to argue the question until my opponent will point out to me some one brought up under the inspiring influences of the highest classics who presents a standard of manhood equal to the noble character of the man to whose life I have briefly referred tonight, the benefactor of the human race, and especially the benefactor of the children of the South, George Peabody.

HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTH.

SUPT. E. H. MARK, LOUISVILLE, KY.

After the statement just made by the President I am very doubtful as to what I should say on the subject upon which I am to open the discussion. If there is only one public high school in the State of North Carolina and not being advised as to the number in the other Southern States, I am in a quandary as to what is the best thing to say under such circumstances. Coming from a city on which more than one hundred thousand dollars are expended each year for high schools it is now evident to me that the high schools which I have in mind are not such as should be discussed at this time for the South.

There are great demands made in these modern times on our educational system, and from the discussion which I heard yesterday on elementary education I am satisfied that the great problem which now confronts us in the South is that of arousing our people from their lethargy and awakening an interest in our public schools. In many localities this has already been done, but the greater portion of the South still needs to be aroused to the need of good

schools. To talk of high schools for the South after what has been said about the elementary schools would seem to be out of place. What we need is a good system of elementary schools.

After Russell Wallace, one of England's greatest thinkers said in the closing year of the last century that "compared with our astounding progress in physical science and its practical application, our system of government, of administrative justice and of *national education* and our entire social and moral organization remain in a state of barbarism."

That was a pretty strong statement to make at a time when we were boasting of our great advancement, when we were congratulating ourselves on our wonderful work in governmental, educational and social affairs. Yet in the first year of the present century Germany's great monistic philosopher, Ernest Haeckel, in his "Riddle of the Universe" says, "to our regret we must endorse the words of Wallace" and further says "to convince ourselves of the truth of this grave indictment we need only cast an unprejudiced glance at our public life, or look into the mirror that is daily offered to us by the press, the organ of public sentiment." If Drs. Wallace and Haeckel had lived in the United States instead of England and Germany they might at least have modified their statement a little so far as national education is concerned. Yet I am sorry to say that the statement is true in great measure with reference to much of the educational work of this country.

Our modern high school is a peculiar institution in many respects, and is growing more peculiar in many more each year. It is being pulled in two directions almost diametrically opposite, and in consequence it has almost been pulled into two parts. On the one hand, the elementary schools backed by the mass of the people are pulling in one direction, while the colleges and universities adhering to the traditions of the past are pulling in the other direction. For this reason the modern high school is a mongrel with a curriculum of the classical and co-called practical studies.

The people are demanding the introduction of stenography, typewriting, manual training, domestic science, bookkeeping, Spanish, etc. The colleges and universities are insisting upon more English, modern languages, ancient languages, sciences, etc., and I notice that in a recent conference of college, university and high school men in Chicago that a resolution was adopted almost unanimously declaring for a six years course in the high schools and only two years in the higher institutions. This would indicate that the high schools are to be made fitting schools for colleges and universities, and not only fitting schools, but they must do two years of the work of the higher institutions.

The tendency for some time has been to allow these higher institutions in a great measure to fix the course of study in secondary schools. I do not believe the time has come when this can be done in the South, in fact I do not believe the best interests of the educational system will be subserved by allowing it to be done anywhere in this country. If all our schools, both secondary and higher, were state or national and not private and denominational, I could understand how a system could be devised which would have the continuity which is so much desired, but with each higher institution having a curriculum dictated by those in charge of it I do not believe the proposed change either possible or desirable.

The modern high school whether North or South must be the result of the demands of the people directly interested and its course of study must be such as will meet the peculiar conditions of the people in the community in which it is located. The demands of the people directly interested are the most important ones and must be met without being influenced by what any college or university may wish.

There are some demands made by the people on high schools that I do not consider wise from an educational standpoint. I do not believe that educational interests

should be sacrificed wholly for the industrial and commercial interests of the country. But, as much as I may regret our tendency to meet every demand upon our high school by these interests I still feel that the high schools will be compelled to accede to them. In my own city we have four high schools. A classical school, in which Latin, Greek, French, mathematics, psychology, logic and the physical sciences are taught. You ask why we have all these and many more included in the curriculum. My answer is that many of them are found there because of the demand of the colleges and universities that we prepare boys and girls for their entrance examinations and for no other reason.

In the manual training school we have to meet the demands of the technical schools, consequently a number of subjects has found a place in the curriculum of this school for this reason only. Then we have a commercial school that was established in response to the demand made by a large number of patrons of the public schools that boys and girls should be equipped for commercial life. I have never found any demand on the part of the business world for this school. Two of these high schools are in response to the demand of the citizens. A man says, "My girl must go to work as soon as possible, and you must prepare her for work, you must give her a course in typewriting and business transactions so that when she leaves school she will be ready for any place that may offer." An education within such narrow limits is taking away from education its true value. The girl should be so educated as to give her mental power that will enable her to go into the world to enter upon any work which may be fitted for her sex rather than for a particular kind of work. Too often education for particular work unfits the possessor of it for the greater work of life. How many pupils prepared in commercial schools as typewriters, stenographers, or book-keepers, find no demand for their services, or, if securing a position, find the work not suited to them, become discouraged and drift into places requiring none of the meagre

preparation which they have had and that the time which they have spent in school is practically all lost? A boy who is prepared to do one thing only cannot hope to cope with the one who is prepared to do almost anything.

It is important that the demands of modern times require preparation along special lines in our high schools rather than the broad preparation which gives power and culture.

But most high schools are going to the other extreme of attempting to do entirely too much. Their courses of study are extensive rather than intensive. Pupils are required to pursue many subjects, instead of studying few, with results that they come from the high schools knowing nothing well. In too many cases with a mere smattering of a great many subjects with no power to read or think in any one. Examine the college entrance requirements in English alone, and you will find as much reading in the first two years as the average student in our secondary schools ought to do in the four years of the course. I am not decrying the demands for a better quality of English, but I am protesting against the quantity. I am entering my protest against the sacrifice of the quality of work in all subjects for quantity.

Superintendent Mark here recited an instance of a graduate of a high school who entered a normal school only to find that she knew no subject well enough to be able to teach it. Continuing, he said:

Then again the modern high school is demanding a knowledge of nearly all the sciences—physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, biology, physiology and many others, with laboratory work in all. In fact, college and university methods of teaching the sciences have been crowded into our secondary schools upon pupils with immature minds, until the study of the sciences has become much as the study of Latin and Greek has been in these schools for many years, the mere memorizing of the printed page with the aid of a lexicon or a glossary.

Laboratory work consists in doing just what a manual or a teacher tells is to be done. To sit down at a table with a microscope having a small section of a simple plant or the tissue of an animal under it, is not studying biology. To pour one solution into another is not studying chemistry. These things might be classed as spectacular if they could be projected on a screen with a lantern, eliciting an Oh! an Ah! or Isn't it wonderful or beautiful! and then pass on to forgetfulness of it in the next view thrown on the screen. Are we not doing too much work of this character and labeling it science?

I am willing to admit that in many directions the course of study in the modern high school surpasses those of Harvard and Yale of fifty years ago. I am also willing to admit that the boy or girl who completes a good high school course has knowledge of more subjects than the graduate of either Harvard or Yale of a half a century ago had. But I am not willing to admit that the graduate of the modern high school can write, think or work as well. I have no sympathy for any educational institution which takes students and crams into them all that it is possible to cram in the time prescribed by the curriculum and then gives them a degree, thereby assuring the world that they are educated and cultured men and women. But the cramming process is not confined to colleges, universities and secondary schools. Our elementary schools are doing much of the same kind of work. I am sorry to say that what is considered by many one essential study in our elementary schools, arithmetic, is poorly taught. Educators are demanding that much of this subject be cut out, and I am frank to confess that I think the suggestion a good one, if we are to enrich our present courses of study to the extent demanded. But whatever is retained let it be so well taught that it will be a source of power for thought, for accuracy, for rapidity of mental action and for continual mental effort, then, that it will truly have an educative value!

But, as to the high school for the South, it should

differ in no respect from the good high school in any other section of the country. It may differ from many high schools in the amount of work demanded, and I sincerely hope it will, but in the quality of the work done I plead for the best. I hope that the demands of the commercial and the industrial world on the one hand, and those of the college on the other, will not in a great degree affect the high schools of the South. I hope these schools will be established to give the boys and girls of the South more and better educational advantages. I hope they will not become mills for grinding out so much grist in the form of cramming for examinations, particularly for college training.

Manual training and domestic science as educative factors will have a place in these schools, but not in the sense of making a mechanic or cook. The boy who studies the classics should make as good a mechanic as the one who studies manual training. It takes an educated head to direct the hand. Skill counts for something, but not for everything. A machine will make more perfect works for a watch than can be made by the hands of the most skilled workman, but it takes brains to make the machine. I remember my first visit to the colored schools of Louisville as superintendent; the first thing that attracted my attention was the condition of the clothing of the children. Many, if not most of the children, had rents in their clothing, the dresses of the girls and the coats of the boys as well as the trousers indicated an utter carelessness as to neatness. I was at a loss to know what aid reading, geography, grammar and arithmetic could be to people in their condition. I wondered if a knowledge of participles and infinitives would lead to the darning of rents. I concluded that training in self-respect which would lead to habits of cleanliness and neatness would have more value to these children than training in the abstract principles of arithmetic or grammar. So I called a meeting of the principals of the colored schools and insisted upon an organization of industrial classes in every colored school in the city. Today

but few rents in clothing are to be seen. Cleanliness and neatness have taken the place of dirt and tatters. Many of the children have become producing factors in the community. In some cases the children are able to make enough money from their industrial work to buy their own clothes and books. The high school, as well as the elementary schools of the South, must meet our peculiar conditions. The rural high school will be a necessity. We are apt to associate the high school with the cities. In the North some of their best high schools are to be found in the rural districts. In the South, where our cities are few and widely separated, we must look to the rural high schools for our secondary education. These schools must be established so that all children in the territory will have access to them. The children of Jefferson county, outside of Louisville, are practically cut off from high school privileges, no parent except the well-to-do can afford to pay the tuition for his children in the Louisville high schools. The tuition ranges from fifty dollars a year in the girls' high school to one hundred and twenty in the manual training high school. An imaginary line, known as the city limits, has deprived many children from securing a good elementary or secondary education.

RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS.

HON. W. B. MERRITT, STATE SCHOOL COMMISSIONER, GEORGIA.

I.

You have heard discussed some of the problems that are met in high school work. The problem of articulating high school work with college work. The problem in Georgia at present is how to secure high schools for the rural districts. Our Constitution establishes and maintains common schools and a splendid college system. In the towns and cities high schools have been provided by local

taxation. In many rural communities high schools have been sustained by tuition and by donations from generous men and women, and by religious denominations.

The movement for local taxation in counties of this State is largely prompted by the desire to build up more high schools for the benefit of the rural school children. Everybody is anxious to connect our common schools with the higher educational institutions in the State. In many places the village and rural high school has been maintained at a great sacrifice of a few. When our laws permit us to apply the school funds to this important work, not only the high school department will take on new life, but all our educational work will be revived.

Since the day of Darwin all people have acknowledged his maxim—"The survival of the fittest"—as the correct theory of existence. In animal and vegetable life the maxim is the elimination of the weakest, while in the world of man the theory leads—the life of the strongest; this is a difference that is important, and the working out of the theory means the cultivation of the man to the highest extent that he may by virtue of his superior strength and wisdom attain where his fellows falter and fall. So gradual has been the growth of this idea, the very cornerstone of evolution, that the ones who most strenuously deny evolution are in fact the strongest supporters of this idea of the survival of the fittest; and more widespread than this even is the maxim, for those who have never heard of evolution or of the maxim itself, yet strongly support in their ideas and actions the theory. In no way is the existence of this universal idea more clearly shown than in the demand for rural high schools, and the growing impression that high school work is essential in city and in country. The superior advantages in a material way to the boy or girl who earns the living and who has had the added strength of high school training is so apparent as to need no demonstration, and the utilitarian point of view is after all the strongest appeal to the masses.

The recognition of the need of such schools is not equivalent to the possession, for many hindrances and discouragements confront us. In spite of poverty, and of laws that hamper communities that would willingly vote heavier taxes upon themselves for the better and longer educational advantages, the work may be done, and may be well done. And all the more will such work be appreciated. We truly appreciate only what we have to pay a heavy price for. I have in mind a high school established in a little town in Georgia just after the close of the war. A number of young men who realized their lack of education and the importance of securing better training, determined to support a high school. They were poor, and the community was poor, but poverty did not deter them, but rather incited to stronger efforts. They rented rooms; they carried their provisions from home; and they cooked their own food, making every sacrifice to obtain what their hearts were set upon. And they got it, of course. Their great hearted teacher gave them of the living personality and character that was inbred in him by a classical education and a natural thirst for knowledge and he gave not himself in vain, for these youths went out to take their places among the leading men of the State. Not long ago I had the pleasure of witnessing a reunion of these men, and the devotion that they displayed for each other, and for the memory of their teacher and the little high school that had given them their glimpse into the mysteries of knowledge, was most touching, and to me most instructive, for it showed me what the influence of a good high school may be. We are accustomed to college reunions, but it is a rare thing for a high school to have such a meeting, yet the influence upon a community of a high school may be as lasting and as strong as that of a college.

Let us give due honor and recognition to the high school, and to the community that denies itself to support it. There are many defects in our present high school system, chief among which is the lack of perfect articulation between the

grammar school and the high school. For this reason we often hear it said that the grammar school course needs enriching. In my opinion, this should be changed somewhat—we should say that the grammar school teaching needs enriching. The teachers need enriching in scholarship, in methods, and in enthusiasm. The three R's often fail of their possibilities because of the three M's—misconception, meagerness and monotony—misconception of the true end and aim of education; meagerness of attainments, and monotony of presentation.

This limitation of grammar school teachers by impoverishing the grammar schools makes the transition of the pupil from one school to the other too abrupt and too hard and discouraging to the average pupil, and hence there is a thinning out of the ranks at the very time that there is most need of proper and well directed training of mind and heart. There are other reasons for the abrupt transition that is so common to all our schools, and the popular solution of the problem is that part of the high school studies should be placed in the grammar school. There are important objections raised to this, but at least the spirit of high school teaching should enter into the lower grades that pupils may have a foretaste of high school work while still in the grammar school. Many of the modern books are planned for this, but almost all the responsibility falls on the teacher. For the teachers to measure up to the responsibility the real purpose of an education must be clearly perceived—there must be the overwhelming conviction that from the highest to the lowest the one in training is being prepared to see the beauties ahead of him by truly appreciating the beauties around him; he must be made to thirst for living waters of which he has only heard; to hunger for bread of life that only a life time of earnest effort can give him. The teacher who recognizes this aim will make the spelling lesson a word study; the history lesson a study of biography and a catechism of civic virtues; the arithmetic lesson something more than mere working examples, for

the science of numbers will be the underlying principle; and as the little ones lisp the nursery rhyme—

“Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are,”

the conscious ability to enlighten the child as to the difference between the twinkling star and the fixed star, if time and circumstances permit, will make the teaching of even a jingle stronger and more impressive. “Power does not lie in the raw material, but in its use.” “The gradual self-revelation by means of a progressive revelation to him of the world of nature and the world of society,” is the true education of the child, and that teacher who recognizes the true value and beauty of science is the only one who can do this work. DeGarmo says, “For knowledge of any kind to be scientific it must become subject to laws and principles which are seen to be independent of the opinions of individuals. If we still had opinions about the multiplication table we should have no science of mathematics. We must reduce experience to rules and principles.”

In sad contrast to this is the fact that the majority of our teachers are doing merely mechanical work, neglecting the spirit that maketh alive. The words, the rules, the formal processes are impressed and emphasized while the life-giving principles, the basal foundations, of knowledge are ignored. As an example, time and again have I heard teachers declare their inability to work such an example as, “What is the value of $\$a$ for b years at $c\%$?”—and yet these same teachers attempt to teach percentage. No truer word was ever said than that the teacher needs the nine-tenths of knowledge that he does not use directly in order to emphasize the one-tenth that he does use.

Children who have been fortunate enough to have had thought-provoking teachers in the grammar school will go to the high school inevitably, for the true thirst for knowledge thus awakened is insatiable, and so impelling that no effort will be counted too strenuous to accomplish

the desire. The country child thus awakened and inspired must suffer for the necessary means to gain the longed-for end unless there are high schools in his vicinity. These schools must come, and they will come to Georgia when the people have realized the advantage of the expenditure of a little more money to save that already spent, and when they shall therefore vote to amend the laws that now bind them. These rural high schools may lack, for a time, necessary apparatus, laboratories and museums, but the whole world of nature is spread before the children and the teaching may be direct from the fountain head. The enraptured utterance of the Psalmist, "When I behold the heavens, the work of Thy hands, what is man that Thou art mindful of him?" came direct from a heart attuned to nature, and the humblest of us may have this communion. Longfellow celebrates the great Agassiz by saying of him—

"And Nature, the old nurse, took the child upon her knee,
Saying, Here is a story book I have written for thee."

The reading of this story book is an art, but an accessible accomplishment to all.

Another defect that I shall not discuss, but merely mention is the lack of unanimity of opinion as to the advantages of the departmental system, and the comprehension of the true meaning of such a system. Ella Flagg Young has wisely said, "Most teachers think that teaching five classes a day, in the same subject, and at the same stage of advancement, is departmental instruction. This is not departmental teaching, it is horizontal repetition."

Another defect that I wish to discuss briefly is the fixed curriculum of most of our high schools, and the current belief that this is a necessity. I quote from an eminent authority as to the defects of a fixed curriculum and the advantages of an elective course:

"Some of the more obvious defects of the fixed curriculum are:

1. Such a curriculum denies a place to many subjects that have proved themselves as valuable as those chosen, both for the generation of power and for usefulness in future callings.

2. A fixed curriculum leaves a large part of the latent ability of the students still inert.

3. A fixed curriculum lacks for many students those associations of ideas that are capable of rousing the mind to its best efforts.

4. When every form of talent offers itself for the higher training, it cannot be regarded as reasonable to say that we will educate a few types only.

All knowledge may be classified into three groups:

The human sciences.

The natural sciences.

The economic sciences.

In these three groups we have from nine to twelve distinct departments of knowledge, according to the minuteness of our classification. Every student should have something of each from a social reason and from a psychological reason. Students should be allowed to elect, not departments, but more or less equivalent studies within departments. Let us remember that difference is not inferiority."

The need of the South in the direction of better high schools in the cities and towns, and for the establishment of such schools in rural districts has gone up with a mighty cry, and already we have the assurance of the answer to our prayer, for the great Peabody board has expressed an interest and a concern in the schools for country and town children which emboldens us to believe that "there are showers of blessings" in store for us. We have, like the prophet's servant, gazed upon the heavens again and again in search for the indications of an outpouring, and if with the same faith we persevere, we shall see at last, it may be but a cloud the size of a man's hand, but the messenger of what is to follow.

The majority of our teachers come from the high school, and, while this is not sufficient training for a well equipped teacher, it is the chief source, and will continue to be in the immediate future, in spite of the establishment of any number of teachers' colleges. The betterment of the high school means, then, better teachers, and the true spirit of education is to be found not in classic halls or in flights of oratory or bursts of pedagogic light, based upon psychologic

truths, but in the true understanding of the meaning of education, and this must come from the grammar school teacher, from the high school teacher, for it to become an inbred principle and motive of conduct. The crying need is to interest, to create a desire in truth, and the way will then take care of itself. No normal school, or great teachers' college, or university, can implant with the vital force and permanence these seed-thoughts; this work lies as an obligation and the highest privilege upon the grammar and high school teachers.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

PRINCIPAL J. W. GAINES, HARTSVILLE, S. C.

Into every human life there come great opportunities, and I can but feel that one of such is mine today as I stand before you and speak in behalf of secondary schools. If I can say anything in a practical way that will lead to a more thoughtful consideration of the advancement and extension of these educational facilities to our people, I will feel that I have accomplished some good. These schools are tremendous factors in the educational development of the country. I have watched with peculiar interest, gratification and pride their beneficent work of lifting up from plane to plane those interests which conserve to the making of the highest and purest civilization of this wonderful time. In this great republic of ours every citizen is or should be a sovereign or ruler in himself. The right of suffrage by which the people select their public servants to administer their laws is the proud inheritance of this people. Some one has said, "The hearts of a nation's toilers is the citadel of a nation's power, and their arms, the bulwark of a nation's liberties." Especially is this true of a representative or republican form of government like ours. It is therefore of the greatest importance that the common masses of the common people, or the "Sons of

Liberty," as they were felicitously styled in the early history of our great republic, should be educated and trained in lines of advanced thought in order that we may hold intact and unsoiled the proud fabric of civil and religious liberty, bequeathed to us by our fathers. Knowledge is power, knowledge is freedom. Real knowledge comprises the cultivation of the heart, head and hand; a people thus equipped never have been and never will be enslaved.

In the present far more than any preceding age ideas govern mankind. Whether we look to the engines of war or to the arts of peace; the means of destruction or the appliances for preservation, we shall find nothing in the past comparable to the achievements of the present. But all this gigantic manifestation of physical power is but the fruits of educated minds. They have leaped into being at the command of ideas, but with their hands capable of interpreting these ideas into form and use. All the world is moving and we must be awake and thinking; up and doing, and the question is not what we shall be, not what our fathers were, but what the coming generation will be?

Since the formation of this government, the educated men of the South have been noble leaders for a great people. The question is asked, how are we to educate these leaders for the conditions now existing? We must look to our secondary schools for help. The colleges do not, and cannot, meet the demands of the hour.

The South previous to the war had its colleges, its elementary schools and its academies and its preparatory schools—some of which were quite famous in a local way, being brought to this well earned position in local reputation by some intellectual giant. There existed such a school in Abbeville county, in my own State of South Carolina, presided over by a Mr. Waddell. Teacher and pupils lived in log cabins in the forest, and when a class was wanted he went to the door and called in stentorian voice for the class in Virgil, Iliad or trigonometry. This was a primitive plant, indeed, but a master was in charge, and as

a result South Carolina sent out a line of patriots, warriors and statesmen from this very school that have won the admiration of the civilized world, one of whom was John C. Calhoun. This and similar schools gave young men such preparation that they could easily enter freshman classes for a course in classics in any college in America, which was the only kind of education in the South at that time. But with the war conditions changed. When defeat settled upon our arms, the horrors of reconstruction hung over us so dense and black, that even the eye of faith and courage could not penetrate the gloom. Want stalked unappeased throughout the land, and everywhere the brave men who had survived the bitter war were struggling to rise from the unjust oppression of reconstruction to support their starving families, and little or no attention could be paid to education other than that which was received at the mother's knee. But brave hearts and ready hands have repaired the waste and devastation of war, and, Phoenix-like, our beautiful Southland has leaped from Plutonian darkness into the light of a brighter day. Realizing that the people must be educated in order to prevent the encroachment of power, prompted by avarice and ambition, which is the inevitable prelude to the destruction of a nation's liberties, the watchword of the hour is—educate. In the system of schools there has grown up a place for high schools, filled to a very limited extent by public high schools, private academies and a few denominational institutions. These are meeting the demands of the day as best they can, with the means at hand. They are giving instruction in courses which are mainly classics—because they must prepare a few students for college, and the large number who do not go to college must conform to the routine laid down as college entrance requirements; and a thorough course this is in some of these schools. But is this the work most needed in our land today? Must the 10 per cent. who go to college dictate to the 90 per cent. who can never enter college? By no means, unless the

same course is equally beneficial to all, and this is not true. The usual argument is that the course of study trains the mind in such manner that the student will have the capacity for attacking and solving correctly whatever problems may come before him, and thus prepare the classical graduate for any career whatever. Just as well say that football would make a blacksmith. The so-called common people cry out against this and are demanding education that prepares a student for life work. This cry our educators must answer, and answer in the secondary schools, if they as leaders are true to the trust imposed in them. Our secondary schools must not only give the training necessary for entering college, but they must do still more, they must give about 90 per cent. of their enrollment the only training for citizenship they will ever receive—hence, they must train for the farm, the workshop, the store, the counting-room and all the activities of life to which their students may be called. This can be done by separate high schools, as in some places in the North where there is a classic high school, a manual training high school, etc. Or it can be done in high schools giving these several courses, allowing the student to select the one best adapted to his capacities. A few high schools in the South have made some progress in this line, and we already hear of courses in agriculture, manual training, commercial courses, etc. This is a step in the right direction, and if our teachers wish to be abreast of the progress, and do their part in bringing about a still greater prosperity, they must stand for a more flexible and a more diversified course of study in the Southern high schools. Then there will be in the future these courses in all our schools, that are best adapted to the community in which they are located. In agricultural regions if only one course can be offered it ought to be agriculture. In a mining region, the course might be on this subject, etc.

There are some obstacles in the way of those schools already established, and still greater obstacles in the way of those not established. Those now in existence need

more funds in order that they may secure a higher grade of teachers, then the colleges can give them more sympathy and not try to take their higher classes away from them by their sub-freshman and preparatory courses, etc., which are very enticing to the high school student. The college men can help themselves as well as help the high schools by encouraging the students to remain in the high school.

Another and greater need is leaders for these high schools. The high schools need men of greater talents and broader sympathies even than the college, because the need of these talents is greater in his sphere on account of the greater work. The high schools need men who are willing to give their very lives to this noble work, and not look with longing eyes to a chair in some college.

What man in the country would not be proud to have his name cherished as Thomas Arnold's of Rugby is? We cannot all do this, but let us strive to make ourselves worthy of the grand and noble work before us.

OUTLINE OF ADDRESS ON "COLLEGE REQUIREMENTS IN ENGLISH."

PROF. CHAS. W. KENT, UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

In view of the fact that this subject will be discussed by Dr. Smith, of the University of North Carolina, and Prof. Webb, of Georgia, I shall now use the few minutes allotted to me in outlining what such a course of college requirements should be, but I beg to submit for publication in the proceedings of this Association an outline carefully considered and previously prepared. It is of the spirit and purport of this paper which I submit for publication that I now wish to speak.

To the historian of education, its development into the complex things which we now see, presents many interesting

phases. Without using chronological exactness, it might be mentioned that the earliest form of our education was in the cloistered service of the church. This education was marked by scholarly seclusion and a withdrawal from the ordinary interests of the world. Following this was the education in the court. Such education was designed to increase the authority of the rulers and for that reason was kept as far as possible from the king's subjects. Next in order came the education for chivalry, which, with its polish, refinement and culture, gave a stamp to its possessors. This culture power of education is still one of its coveted blessings. Out of the crusades to which chivalry belonged grew the necessity that those at home should devote themselves to the ordinary vocations and occupations of life, and in this way came into being the trade school, or education for commerce. Even today one of our standards of educational success is the ability education gives to acquire fortune. But our enlarged conception of education today makes it a training, not for the church or the court, not for chivalry, or commerce, but for citizenship. That this may be a worthy ideal, citizenship should not be narrowly conceived.

It means the development of a rounded, full-orbed character; it means the man, four-square, with trained head and hand, heart and soul. It is claimed that the classical education of the olden times was one-sided, and in our day we have heard much of the narrowness and limitations of Latin and Greek training. But, Mr. President, I submit that a modern conception of education which would eliminate Latin and Greek and substitute for it, as the panacea for all our ills, industrial training, is a still narrower and a far more limited view of education for citizenship. There is little danger that we shall more neglect in our education the training of the judgment, or the training for the actual bread and butter occupations of life, but there is great danger that we shall limit and cramp the capacity for enjoyment by leaving untrained the power of imagination.

The study of Greek has been well nigh eliminated from our public schools and is fast disappearing from many of our better academies. This is a far greater loss than many would imagine. It is not merely the loss of a synthetic language, in which the mind might be disciplined in difficult forms and trained in acute observation, but it is the loss of a literature, above all others most significant for its adoration of beauty and its preservation of the sense of form. The Hebrews were no more the chosen people of God to preserve religion than were the Greeks to preserve beauty. If, then, in losing Greek the schools have lost their most valuable means of cultivating the sense of art, how shall this loss be made good? I answer, if at all, by the fuller and more inspired study of English. The attention of schools is called to this task, for if we neglect the beauties of our own literature and fail to make our pupils in the schools enthusiastic about our own achievements in prose and poetry, then the task of inspiring these pupils will perhaps remain forever unperformed. English training must be made at all hazards lively, alive and enlivening. Life must be its characteristic. Here the spirit is everything; the letter killeth. The deadly drill, the daily routine in dull rules of grammar, unenlightened by comment or enthusiasm, may blind the eyes to all beauty of language. This, then, is the danger of uniform requirements for admission to college. Uniformity is by no means so important as efficiency. Let us beware lest we have instead of live men fresh for new duties, machine-made freshmen, dulled by the routine drill in prescribed books and dead to the beauties of a grand literature.

CHAS. W. KENT'S OUTLINE.

Training Desirable for Entrance with Profit Upon the B. A. Course in English Literature.

Besides comparative maturity of mental training, the student should have:

1. Ability to spell correctly all ordinary words in English, and pride in using no word without ascertaining its correct spelling.

2. Well-formed habits of reasonably correct punctuation.
3. Handwriting either already formed, or fast becoming so by care in practice.
4. Accurate knowledge of the principles of English grammar, but rather of the principles in their application than theoretically.
5. General knowledge of the fundamental principles of Rhetoric, with special training in forming sentences and paragraphs.
6. Some acquired skill in composition, which comes alone by well-high constant practice in writing.
7. General acquaintance with the outline of the History of English Literature.
8. General acquaintance with the outline of the History of American Literature.
9. Familiarity with many classic books, from a sympathetic reading of them.
10. Some training in minute and critical analysis, derived from a close examination under the teacher's guidance, of some selected specimens.

Scheme of Work to Secure Such Preparation.

TENTH YEAR.

Reading—Substitute for conventional readers fairy tales, stories of mythology, deeds of heroism, biographies. Have poetry and the Bible recited. Call attention to leading punctuation marks.

Spelling—Rely mainly on exercises in dictation, blackboard exercises, correcting bad spelling.

Writing—Supplement copy-books by writing on blackboard, transcribing passages, writing out selections memorized.

Grammar—No formal lessons, but see that the pupil is led into correct habits of speech.

Rhetoric—Can a child not be made to tell what he has seen (describe), or tell things that have happened (narrate), or even invent stories?

Literature—Suggest books to be read, and talk about the books read.

ELEVENTH YEAR.

Reading—Biography, history, mythology, short stories. Poetry and Bible memorized.

Spelling—Spelling lessons, but mainly as above, with exercises indefinitely varied.

Writing—Exercises in sentences; elementary compositions about familiar things; eye and ear particularly trained.

Grammar—See to it that all written work is carefully corrected and explained.

Rhetoric — Encourage simple oral stories, accurate descriptions, etc.

Literature — Reading of best books should be provided for.

TWELFTH YEAR.

Reading — Preference given to history, biography, stories and poetry. More exercises in memorizing poems, prose selections, and Bible.

Spelling — Mainly by practice in writing, blackboard exercises, etc.

Writing — Exercises in sentences and paragraphs, with particular attention to punctuation. Compositions increased.

Grammar — Begun, but with insistence upon forms and elementary principles of syntax.

Rhetoric — Train critical powers by bringing out likes and dislikes, with reasons.

Literature — Books now read should be selected for their disciplinary value, as well as for interest.

THIRTEENTH YEAR.

Reading — History, biography, natural history, stories, longer poems(particularly narrative), with such questions as test understanding. Recitation of good selections.

Spelling — Use of words in sentences; discrimination between words alike to eye or ear; exercises in synonyms; blackboard exercises.

Writing — Use various devices for practice, description of observed objects, stories of experiences, etc.

Grammar — Studied with reference to application of principles. Much practice in correcting solecisms.

Rhetoric — Only such as may be gotten from kinds of compositions written.

Literature — Prescribe stories about authors; books about books, literary events, and other books in preparation for interest in literary history.

FOURTEENTH YEAR.

Reading — Some larger book for general reading; some classic stories or poems for interpretative reading.

Writing — Compositions and blackboard exercises more frequent; corrections closer; thought watched; words criticised.

Grammar — Systematic study, with particular reference to application.

Rhetoric — Various exercises in diction, in building sentences, etc.

Literature — Require certain books of prose or poetic selections to be read, and apply various tests for understanding, appreciation, etc.

FIFTEENTH YEAR.

Reading — Longer poems read aloud, with examination of contents; prose selections or books discussed, explained. Accustom pupil to explain references, figures of speech, allusions, etc.

Writing — Give models of descriptions, and require other descriptions based on them; furnish plots for stories, and require pupils to amplify them; require of pupils written explanations of things he understands.

Grammar — Studied systematically, with closer examination of usage, exceptions.

Rhetoric — Elementary book on composition, with special reference to words, placing words, phrases, clauses, correct usage, fundamental processes.

Literature — Introduction to American literature by means of specimens, general readings, and perhaps a brief outline of the history of American literature.

SIXTEENTH YEAR.

Reading — Specimen poems, plays, prose selections, such as orations, simple expositions, arguments, etc., read, examined, with written outlines, abstracts, paraphrases.

Writing — Compositions in close connection with rhetoric; frequent written exercises, with attention to form; orations.

Grammar — Perhaps a brief treatment of historical grammar here in place.

Rhetoric — Rhetoric systematically studied in simple text-book, with numerous applications.

Literature — Introduction to English literature through some descriptive history and by specimens, etc., as in American literature.

SEVENTEENTH YEAR.

Reading — Study of poems, plays, stories, with criticism of plots, plans, contents, style, etc. Fuller and freer reading, but with care.

Writing — Essays with rhetoric corrected minutely and discussed personally. Various exercises in making significant extracts, abstracts, paraphrases, translations, metaphrases, etc. Expositions of things mastered, critical estimates of things read; arguments on questions of immediate personal interest, etc.

Grammar — Substitute for formal grammar some succinct account of the history of the English language; some introduction into philology, etc.

Rhetoric — Style in general carefully reviewed, with further study of the forms of discourse.

Literature — English and American literature studied either separate or together, but mainly by periods, or by kinds, with more attention given to the whys than to the whats of literature.

THE COLLEGE REQUIREMENTS IN ENGLISH. (Abstract.)

PROF. C. ALPHONSO SMITH, UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA.

I.—HISTORY OF THE REQUIREMENTS.

In 1874 Harvard University began to require a certain standard of correctness in English composition as a condition for entrance. This far-reaching step marked the beginning of college entrance requirements in English. Twenty years later Yale University prescribed for entrance a select list of English masterpieces. Yale's requirement was purely literary, while that of Harvard confined itself solely to the practical elements of grammar and rhetoric. Every teacher of secondary English who was fitting his pupils for college must have wished to see the two requirements combined, for the high school cannot afford to send out pupils who cannot write ordinary English correctly or who are unfamiliar with at least a few of the masterpieces of English literature.

The next step was taken when the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, desiring to have uniform entrance requirements in English, wisely decided to co-operate with the New England colleges and high schools. A joint conference, known in educational history as the Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English, was held in 1894; and the requirements then formulated were adopted the next year by the Southern Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools.

II.—THE REQUIREMENTS.

For 1904 and 1905, the requirements are as follows:

- A. For Careful Study.
 1. Shakespeare's *Macbeth*.
 2. Milton's *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, *Comus*, and *Lycidas*.
 3. Burke's *Speech on Conciliation with America*.
 4. Macaulay's *Essays on Milton and Addison*.
- B. For General Reading.
 1. Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar* and *Merchant of Venice*.
 2. Addison and Steele's *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers*.
 3. Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield*.
 4. Scott's *Ivanhoe*.
 5. Coleridge's *Ancient Mariner*.
 6. George Eliot's *Silas Marner*.
 7. Carlyle's *Essay on Burns*.
 8. Lowell's *Vision of Sir Launfal*.
 9. Tennyson's *Princess*.

The first group demands intensive study, the second group demands only intelligent reading. The topic or topics for composition are taken from some scene, or incident, or character sketch in the second group. The written work must be correct in spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and paragraph structure. It must also show some skill in the presentation of ideas and a reasonable range of expression.

III.—SPECIAL ADVANTAGES OF THESE REQUIREMENTS.

1. They are the only requirements that have found favor in all sections of the country.
2. They represent thirty years of intelligent experimentation, and combine the two demands of composition and literature.
3. They embody the joint efforts of the best high schools, colleges and universities in America.
4. The rivalry of publishing houses enables the high school pupils to secure these masterpieces at the cheapest rates and in the best possible editions.
5. The books required represent with as few gaps as

possible the course of English literature from the Elizabethan period to the present time, this having been a recommendation of the Committee of Ten.

6. They represent all the more common forms or types of literary art, such as the drama, the lyric, the elegy, the epic, the masque, the oration, the character sketch, the eighteenth century novel, the nineteenth century novel, and the essay, thus giving ample room for whatever substitutions or parallel reading may be desired.

7. Like the entrance requirements in Latin, or Greek, or mathematics, the English requirements leave the teacher entirely free as to methods, and emphasize only results.

8. The value of the course recommended by the Conference is not conditioned on the pupil's going from the high school to college. The training in literature and composition implied in the requirements is fundamental and essential rather than liberal or special.

IV.—GENERAL RECOMMENDATION.

The high schools and colleges of the South are urged to give these requirements their most careful consideration. Let the high schools embody the requirements as part of their work in literature and composition, and let the colleges and universities demand the requirements for admission to their freshman classes. The movement toward uniformity is a national one and has already proved an effective agency in advancing the standard of English instruction. Literary clubs and reading circles could adopt no more instructive course of study than that here outlined, a course that would not only give opportunity for wide reading and interesting discussion, but would at the same time bring the members into closer sympathy with the work of the high schools and colleges. The press of the South is also reminded that it could be of great service to the cause of education by calling attention to these requirements and by opening its columns to discussions, in whole or in part, of the works recommended.

PROF. W. L. WEBER, EMORY COLLEGE, GEORGIA.

Mr. President:—I wish just to take a few moments of your time in regard to one part of the entrance examinations that has been overlooked. There is no disposition on the part of any one who undertakes to teach English to contradict anything that Dr. Kent has said, and no disposition to do anything else than accept almost everything Dr. Smith has stated, but we, for the most, are in danger of overlooking the study of grammar, a study that is of vast importance from the standpoint of him who would have to see who shall be admitted into his classes.

The question of college entrance requirements resolves itself finally into a consideration of what part any given study is expected to play in our educational programs. If, for example, English is to be put in the same category as Latin and Greek, and studied for its disciplinary value, high schools and colleges must arrange their curricula so as to stress the importance of the mother-tongue as a language discipline. If the acquaintance of English means the accumulation of facts—facts historical and facts linguistic, then the school teacher has still another duty mapped out for him. Such generalizations as these—trite and self-evident as they are—seem to be justified when we remember that such veteran teachers as Professor Freeman failed to distinguish between English, a subject to be taught, and English, a subject on which to give examination.

Perhaps I shall not seem to have gone too far afield if I ask that we consider what place the teacher of English may claim for his study.

I remember that a decade ago I heard a university professor of sociology setting forth the pretensions of the new claimant for place in college courses of study. He did not ask that his subject be looked on as a new science, but insisted that sociology be welcomed as a nexus joining together all the historical and political sciences.

In somewhat similar fashion I would claim for English

specific primacy in educational progress. If we pay heed to the luminous suggestion of Walter Bagehot, we shall find that, of the individual is it as true as of the nation, development is first in the direction of settled habit. Then there must be breaking of the crust of custom before further progress can be made. The department of English may claim for itself the special function of breaking this crust of custom. The young pupil coming with feet untrained to step out of the narrow path of his every day thinking, must be taught to walk with confidence in untried paths. It falls to the work of the English teacher to be the leader along the new ways of knowledge. In a true sense he is to be all things for all his pupils. English is, then, to be looked on not merely as a mental discipline, but also as an evangel of a saner intellectual attitude. The English teacher's success is to be reckoned in the larger elements of character-moulding. This side of the work is not to be measured by class marks, nor to be expressed in terms of examination record. But there is a formal side to the work, and it is with that side this paper has to do. Unless the ideals of the high school teachers are far different from those of the college teacher, what the former seeks to give is what the latter hopes to find.

It is true that we have never had satisfactory examinations in literature. We are not likely to get them until the majority of our pupils come from cultured families, for the home life of the pupil is the best preparation for literary study. Not because he has studied sixteen books, or twenty-six books, or seventy times seven books, is he prepared for college study, but because the life he lives is informed with the spirit of higher things. But, unfortunately, it is true that, while it is true that our students come year by year with better preparation for the examinations in literature, and for the examination in composition, there has been less and less preparation in grammar. From year to year there has been a loss, until at best it seems to me it is almost

impossible that there should be any further loss—that we have got to the zero point.

The only point that I wish to stress is that we teach these simpler matters as well as those of higher things. It seems to me we have been led astray in our anxiety to do the higher kind of work, and that the science of grammar possibly has become so organized that the time must come when there must be a requiting of that subject in order that we may get some essential knowledge of the matter. The student has suffered from the fact that there has been an unwise pursuit of grammatical “fads”; there have been those who tell us that the grammar of sentences is the only true grammar; others that the grammar of the word is alone worth our study.

So we are between two hostile camps and the result is the student is perplexed and discouraged. The standard English grammar is yet to be written, for we have no agreement even in the technicalities of our subject. Take up almost any subject in connection with grammar, it is interesting to consult half a dozen of the best grammars that deal with the subject, and you will find that no two of them perhaps agree as to the meaning of the function which may be in mind. Take a very simple illustration. When I had occasion not long ago to make some study of the gerund, I did not find, I believe, any two grammars that have the same conception of what the gerund is. There is no special reason that we should all agree as to the gerund, but it is desirable that there be agreement in the use of grammatical terminology.

In a recent meeting of a teachers' association, a college professor got up and rejoiced with exceeding great joy that we had come back to the happy time at last when the colleges in the State were using Smith's Old English grammar. His rejoicing was, of course, just a little blunder. My friend Dr. Smith had written a splendid Anglo-Saxon grammar and rightly named it Old English Grammar, but my friend thought it was the old grammar, the old book that

was written over fifty years ago by Roswell C. Smith. After all, the rejoicing of the brother was because he thought it was necessary to go back to the days of our fathers.

I will stop these desultory remarks by saying that as far as I am concerned, I think we shall make no great mistake if we adopt the terminology of the Latin grammar. Of course it is ridiculously untrue that English grammar is but a rewriting of Latin grammar, but it seems to me we shall make slight mistake if we adopt the terminology of Latin grammar and make use of it in the teaching of English grammar. The happy time will then come, I trust, when we shall not be compelled to say, "Many, many are the sins committed in thy name, O, grammar!" [Laughter and applause.]

THE CALL FOR MORE COLLEGE-BRED MEN.

PRES. JOHN W. ABERCROMBIE, UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

The subject which I am requested to discuss within a period of ten minutes, the Call for More College-Bred Men, is so broad and leads to a consideration of so many subdivisions, as to render impossible anything like a thorough or even systematic treatment in the time allotted. I cannot hope to do more than to touch it here and there.

The call for college-bred men is clear and unmistakable. This is especially true in the South, a section just entering upon a development that promises to outrival that of all other sections and countries. The call for specially trained men of broad culture and high character comes from every department of human endeavor. In governmental, religious, educational, professional, commercial and industrial affairs, the call is loud and persistent and imperative.

The College Man in Government.—It is a German saying that, of the number of students who enter the universi-

ties there, one-third fails, another third goes to the devil, and the remaining third governs Europe. As a whole, this statement may or may not be true, but so far as Germany is concerned, the correctness of the last part cannot be questioned.

The college man, the educated citizen, governs not only in Europe, but by our own government he is being called more and more into positions of honor and trust and profit. This is true in both general and local government. The time once was when little or no attention was paid to a candidate's fitness for public office. In many sections of the country that time has gone—gone to come no more, let us hope. This change has been wrought by the spread of education. Universal education in a free government works wondrous changes. An intelligent and patriotic people will not long be satisfied with incompetency in high places.

Notwithstanding less than one per cent. of the people of the United States have received college training, over fifty per cent. of the civic positions of honor, responsibility and salary are today filled by men of that class. In the very high positions, the percentage is even greater. The demand for the educated man in government grows stronger year by year. This is apparent to all observant people. As this demand is supplied, the number of opportunities for preferment open to the non-college trained man grows smaller and smaller. Within the next generation, probably, all of the governmental positions which are regarded as great prizes will be given to the well educated man. Already one-third of the members of Congress have had college training. One-half of the Presidents and Vice-Presidents were educated at college. Two-thirds of the associate justices and seven-eighths of the chief justices of the Supreme Court of the United States have come from the list of college-bred men.

As the civil service system is perfected, the governmental demand for college men will increase. Native

talent combined with education and culture make a stronger, better and more desirable official than does native talent alone. The people have learned this lesson, and the man who aspires to leadership in affairs of state will probably never hear the call unless he qualifies himself as well or better than his opponent.

College-trained men and women are the hope of the future. It is theirs to guard and direct and preserve the republic—theirs to apply correct thinking and patriotic acting to the solution of pending problems of state. The cultivated man, the cultured woman, the educated citizen, is to be the defender of principle and the protector of liberty in the years to come. Numbers is nothing; properly directed, intelligence is everything.

College-bred men, in matters of government, your opportunity is great—equally great is your responsibility.

The College Man in Professional Life.—What is true of the college man in politics is equally true of him in the learned professions of the ministry, law, medicine and teaching. While it has long been conceded that these callings required special preparation not thought to be necessary in others, competition is becoming so great, and the demand for efficient service is becoming so strong, that the man without training above the elementary and secondary courses is at a great disadvantage.

The Ministry.—The demand for educated men in the ministry keeps pace with that in secular life. The pulpit has never been so strong intellectually as at present. During the last quarter of the nineteenth century the number of college graduates in the ministry increased 114 per cent. For the same period the increase in population was only 87 per cent. If there is any decrease in the number entering that service, as is claimed by some, it is among those without the higher training. The pulpit call is for high scholarship as well as for a knowledge of homiletics. That the call is heard and to some extent heeded, is shown by the figures given.

The falling off in the number of uneducated aspirants but multiplies the chances for success of, and increased demand for, the educated wearers of the ministerial toga. Among people of ignorant communities even, there exists a perceptible and growing desire for more efficient church leadership. In proportion as the number of well educated men entering the ministry has increased have denominational prejudice and religious intolerance and wicked superstition departed from the minds and hearts of the people.

Practically all of the most desirable offices of church are now occupied by college-bred men. They are the leaders in the great march of religious thought and action. To them must we look for the continued spread of the glorious gospel of love and light and life.

Medicine.—In medicine the same is true. Of the 132,225 physicians in the United States at the beginning of this the twentieth century, 111,149 were graduates of medical schools. Deducting 10 per cent, for those who quit the the profession and follow other pursuits, 75 per cent. of those in the practice have been trained professionally. While the percentage of college-trained physicians is much below that in the ministry, such training seems to be more necessary for eminent success in that profession, and the number of college men seeking it is growing at a wonderful rate.

Reliable statistics show that the physician with the college degree in addition to the professional degree has a great advantage over the one with the professional degree only. The chances for success and distinction are six to one in his favor.

There is noticed a gradual diminution in the number entering the medical profession with no training above the elementary schools. For fifty years there has been a gradual increase in the number combining college and professional courses. Within that period the number taking post-graduate courses at American and European universities has increased more than 500 per cent.

Twenty-five years ago but few medical schools paid any

attention to academic entrance requirements. Now all of them enforce to some extent such requirements. The time seems to be near when the bachelor's degree, or its equivalent, will be required of all who enter upon the study and practice of the science and art of healing.

During the past hundred years the medical profession has made greater progress than has been made by any other. Yet it has but entered upon the broad fields of research and discovery and invention. The achievements of the past and the promises of the future unite in an invitation to the college man to enter and partake of the honors and emoluments of the profession.

The Law.—It has not been a long time since law schools were few and practically unknown. Till recently, a great majority of the members of the bar received their professional training in the office of some practitioner. Most lawyers, therefore, who are now at that age which usually brings greatest success, did not receive professional instruction at school. Many of them, on account of war and the hardships characteristic of a new country, did not even enjoy the advantage of the higher education. Notwithstanding these hindrances, many of them have won fame and fortune.

But the time is rapidly passing when great success at the bar can be attained by the man without both college and professional training. Heretofore, most lawyers have found it necessary to compete with men without such preparation. Now and hereafter they must come also in competition with men who have had college and university training—men who enter upon their professional careers with highly disciplined minds and well developed bodies. As to the outcome of the contest in which the participants are so unevenly matched there can be no question. Even now the uneducated lawyer enters upon his work so handicapped as to render failure reasonably certain.

The bar, crowded as it is, offers an inviting field of

action to the well educated man. So far as high judicial office is concerned, he already has a practical monopoly.

Teaching.—From one standpoint, at least, teaching is the most inviting professional work in the South today. None other offers more numerous or greater opportunities for service—service to home, to country, to God. And, after all, the life of service is the only happy life. While the financial returns are small, very small, all others are great, great beyond computation.

Of the total number of college professors in this country, 80 per cent. hold the bachelor's degree, 25 per cent. have had a professional course, and 50 per cent. have taken a graduate degree. Including university professors, these percentages would be even greater. Indeed, it is now practically impossible for men without graduate degrees to secure such positions. The college professor, in preparing for his work, spends a longer time beyond the elementary school than any other professional man. Yet the average age at which he attains to distinction is lower than that in any other profession. This tends to prove that the time spent in preparing for one's life work is not time lost, but time gained.

The percentage of college-bred men engaged in the work of the higher institutions of learning, which has itself grown into almost a separate profession, is greater than that of any other calling. The demand there is for the highly trained specialist—the highly trained specialist of broad and liberal education and culture. As colleges and universities grow in number and magnitude, rare and inestimable opportunities present themselves to the educated man.

But that branch of educational work which is in greatest need of educated men is known as the common school system. The great work which the South has begun along that line needs strong and good men—specially trained men—to carry it on toward perfection. While we have accomplished much in the matter of public education, considering the conditions under which we have labored, we

have not done our full duty. The fact that we, when compared with other sections, stand so low in the scale of education, so high in the table of illiteracy, should arouse us to greater efforts.

There is a growing demand for college men in the public school work. The college man who has also had professional training may reasonably hope for success in the teaching profession. Indeed, as I have before stated, it seems to be in many respects the most inviting of professions.

Business Life.—The trained mind, the disciplined intellect, the educated man, leads in business life as well as in the works mentioned. Business is now a profession. The world has come to realize that commercial and industrial trades are as important and respectable as civic and professional callings; that the one requires as high a degree of ability and preparation as the other; and that if, as individuals or as a people, we would surpass our competitors in skilfulness, we must possess superior skill.

An education of the eye to see, a training of the hand to do, a teaching of the mind to think, a discipline of the will to execute—these, combined with a properly cultivated conscience, constitute the most striking characteristics of the college-trained man, and are absolutely essential to the greatest degree of progress and prosperity in this age of great commercial and industrial development.

In the business world, he who possesses native talent only is no match for him who combines with native ability the systematic training of a four-year course at college. The uneducated man will always be present, but his opportunities, his chances for success, will gradually grow smaller and less numerous.

Character, concentration, power, education, are the qualifications demanded by twentieth century business conditions.

Conclusion.—Thus it is seen that, in whatever calling one may choose, education, higher education, such educa-

tion as is found in the average college-bred man, is absolutely essential to that success which every man should hope to achieve.

President Chas. W. Thwing, of Western Reserve University, says that of the more than 15,000 names in Appleton's Cyclopedia of Biography, over 5,000, or more than 33 1-3 per cent., are the names of college graduates. Of each ten thousand people who have not had college education, one attains to sufficiently great distinction to entitle to him in a place in the biographical dictionaries that are published from time to time. Of each group of forty who have taken a college degree, one wins such honors.

United States Commissioner of Education William T. Harris says that "the chance of the college man as compared with the non-college man is as 250 to 1 to become distinguished as a public man of some sort—soldier, naval officer, lawyer, statesman, clergyman, teacher, author, physician, artist, scientist, instructor—in short, a man with directive power of some kind, able to combine matter into a new and useful form, or to combine men in such a way as to reconcile their differences and produce a harmonious whole of endeavor."

Hence, I close as I started, by saying that the call for college-bred men is clear and unmistakable.

ABSTRACT OF ADDRESS ON LITERATURE IN THE SOUTH.

PROF. C. ALPHONSO SMITH, UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA.

Dr. Smith, although lavish in extolling the merits of the great orators of ante-bellum days, was frank enough to admit that the Old South was deficient in literature. He claimed that the renaissance in Southern literature did not begin until 1870. Irwin, Russell, Maurice, Thompson,

Sidney Lanier, Joel Chandler Harris, Charles Egbert Cradock, George W. Cable, Thomas Nelson Page, Jame Lane Allen and others have been the leaders in the new movement.

These men, the speaker thought, were not rising into solitary or selfish renown—they were lifting the South with them, they are writing Southern history, because they are describing Southern life.

Dr. Smith said there was one advantage possessed by Southern writers which cannot be overlooked in even the most cursory review of our literary prospects. It was a truism to say that the war meant far more to the South than to the North. To the North it meant the preservation of the Union and the abolition of slavery. To the South it meant decimated families, smoking homesteads, and the passing forever of a civilization unique in human history. "But," said the speaker, "literature loves a lost cause, provided honor be not lost."

"Hector, the leader of the defeated Trojans, Hector, the warrior, slain in defense of his own firesides, is the most princely figure that the Greek Homer has portrayed; the Roman Virgil is proud to trace the lineage of his people, not back to the victorious Greeks, but to the defeated Trojans; England's greatest poet-laureate finds his amplest inspiration, not in the victories of his Saxon ancestors over King Arthur, but in King Arthur himself and his peerless Knights of the Round Table, vanquished though they were in battle. And so it has always been; the brave but unfortunate reap always the richest measure of literary immortality."

"More than two thousand years ago Leonidas and his three hundred Spartans dared to confront the countless hordes of Xerxes. Defeated? Aye, annihilated! But on the pages of the world's literature Leonidas and his brave three hundred still stand outlined against that Grecian sky as an incentive to valor. Fifty years ago Lord Cardigan and his fearless six hundred made the immortal charge of Balaklava. Defeated? Aye, annihilated! But on the pages

of the world's literature Lord Cardigan and his dauntless six hundred are riding yet. Forty years ago Pickett and his devoted followers made their heroic charge at Gettysburg. Defeated? Aye, annihilated! But the time is coming, yes, it is nearly here, when on the pages of the world's literature, and wherever heroic hearts shall respond to heroic deeds, Pickett and his peerless band shall charge and charge forever.

"Do you remember that tender scene in King Lear where Cordelia stands in the presence of her father, despised, disinherited, forsaken? As her cowardly suitor slinks from the room because Cordelia's inheritance has been lost, the King of France steps forward and, on bended knee, says:

"' Fairest Cordelia, that art most rich, being poor;
Most choice, forsaken; and most loved, despised;
Thee and thy virtues here I seize upon;
Be it lawful, I take up what's cast away.'

"And so, when brave men have fought for the right, as God gave them to see the right, but fought in vain; when great orators have pleaded for justice, as God gave them to understand justice, but pleaded in vain; when the bugles call no more; when the banners are battered and trailing; when the shouts of victory are forever hushed, and the miserere of defeat is chanted over the graves of a buried army; when all, all, is lost save honor, it is then the muses of poetry and song stoop from their aerial heights and lift the dear old lost cause up, up, into the unchanging realm of literature.

"Thus, if history means anything, it means that as the years go by, Southern chivalry, Southern idealism, Southern traditions, are to enter more and more into our national literature. And then it will no longer be said that, though the South has a history, it is an unwritten and an unknown history; for Southern history will then have been written in the living letters of a nation's song and story."

THE GROWTH OF THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL SYSTEM IN THE SOUTHERN STATES AND A STUDY OF ITS INFLUENCE.

DR. W. T. HARRIS, U. S. COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

On January 1st, 1850, four years more than a half century ago, there were in the United States eleven high schools that had a course of study from two to four years in length laid out progressively so as to cover branches of mathematics and foreign languages together with advanced studies in literature, natural science and ancient history. These eleven schools received pupils promoted on examination from a graded course of study in elementary branches.

Thirty-three more of this modern type of high schools were added before January, 1860, making a total of 44 high schools, of which three were in the South. At that time (1860) the wise people shook their heads and said: "It is doubtful if the constitution permits the education of the people in free high schools. District schools may be all right enough, but our forefathers never intended to furnish a liberal education to all children at the expense of the taxpayer." The friends of free high schools were somewhat uneasy over this. But the next ten years saw the number of high schools rise to four times their former number—the 44 of 1860 had increased to at least 160 in 1870; and in the next ten years the increase continued, so that by 1880 there were in operation nearly 800 public high schools. These reached 2,526 in 1890, and 6,005 in 1900, and 6,318 in 1902.

The most noteworthy circumstance connected with this is that the increase of public high schools has gone on in all sections of the country. Take, for example, the North Atlantic States; these already had 786 high schools in 1890, and they came near to doubling their quota in 1900, in which year they reported 1,448, and in 1902 1,477. The

South Atlantic States had only 115 high schools in 1890, but in ten years they had in operation nearly four times as many, for they report 449 in 1900 and 466 in 1902. The South Central States did even better than this, for they increased their public high schools from 158 in 1890 to 675 in 1900, and again to 746 in 1902. The Western division of States—including those on the Pacific coast and States in the mountains—had 91 high schools in 1890, 270 in 1900, and 339 in 1902. The North Central States have long led in the number of public secondary schools. They had in 1890 more than half of all the high schools in the country, and they have more than half now. Their quota increased from 1,376 to 3,290 public high schools in 1902.

Even the schools for colored people in the South have a considerable number of secondary pupils. In 1880, while the population of the entire country sent 4,362 in each million into public and private secondary schools and colleges, the States of the South (including Missouri) had 1,289 colored students in each million of colored people. Although this was less than one-third of the average quota for all people, yet it was encouraging, because it showed that much was being done to furnish an educated ministry, qualified teachers and physicians. The quota in a million of colored persons in high schools and colleges has increased slightly from decade to decade, owing chiefly, it would seem, to the increase in colored high schools in Southern cities. The quota in the million was, as I have mentioned, 1,289 in 1880. It rose to 2,061 in 1890, and to 2,517 in 1900—quite a noteworthy increase of itself, although eclipsed by the general increase for the entire country. In these statistics of colored people I have included both secondary and higher education, because it is not easy to tell how large a proportion those enrolled in colleges are up to a college standard, and how many are only advanced to the secondary rank. I have also counted together the public and private schools for secondary and higher work.

I have prepared a table showing the number of high

schools in the South (including West Virginia and Missouri) in each year from 1889-1890 to 1902, inclusive, and giving the annual number of pupils enrolled, and the number of graduates:

HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTH, INCLUDING MISSOURI
AND WEST VIRGINIA.

YEARS	NO. OF HIGH SCHLS.	SECONDARY STUDIES	COL'D SECONDARY	GRADU- ATES
1889-90	343	23,832	2,122	2,666
1890-91	436	27,864	1,308	3,146
1891-92	513	33,847	1,744	2,675
1892-93	460	33,719	1,463	3,345
1893-94	798	49,275	2,009	5,056
1894-95	1,070	61,511	2,107	5,729
1895-96	1,065	63,569	1,904	5,477
1896-97	1,069	66,653	2,599	6,408
1897-98	1,135	74,070	3,539	7,170
1898-99	1,207	80,482	4,037	8,037
1899-00	1,348	86,795	5,055	8,813
1900-01	1,431	89,784	5,676	9,468
1901-02	1,378	88,262	5,259	9,185

It shows an enrollment of 23,832 pupils in 1890 and 88,262 in 1902. Of these 2,122 were colored students in 1900 and 5,259 colored students in 1902.

I present next a comparative table showing the Southern high school enrollment by States for 1890 and 1902.

The State of Alabama reports the greatest rate of increase, being from 375 pupils to 3,780, or ten times the former number.

The next State, South Carolina, shows an increase from 524 high schools pupils to $7\frac{1}{2}$ times that number, or 3,980.

Tennessee and Mississippi increased to five times their former number. Maryland, North Carolina, Florida and Texas increased to four times their former number, and the following to three and one-half times: Georgia, Kentucky. Louisiana, Arkansas and Missouri. No Southern State increased to less than double its former number of high school pupils. The colored high school pupils increased to two and one-half times their former number, and the

increase of the total enrollment is from 23,832 pupils to nearly four times that number, namely, 88,262 pupils.

SECONDARY STUDENTS

TOTAL, - -	1890 23,832	1902 88,262
STATE		
Delaware	545	1,087
Maryland	1,141	4,508
District of Columbia	1,746	3,339
Virginia	2,059	4,122
West Virginia.....	694	1,727
North Carolina.....	349	1,339
South Carolina.....	524	3,980
Georgia	1,676	5,958
Florida	509	1,901
Kentucky	1,511	5,390
Tennessee.....	966	5,233
Alabama.....	375	3,780
Mississippi.....	694	3,691
Louisiana	837	3,008
Texas.....	3,574	15,090
Arkansas.....	861	2,933
Missouri.....	5,771	21,186

It will naturally be asked what is the significance of this concerted and prodigious increase in free public high schools all over the country, and especially in the South.

It is ingeniously suggested by some that these pupils are studying less useful branches of learning than they studied in the elementary schools—that, in short, the branches taught in the high schools are of the kind known as ornamental rather than solid acquisitions.

Let us look at this question for a moment.

In 1890 I made out a list of branches that ought to form a secondary course—branches that were substantial and such as if pursued vigorously would give mental strength as well as insight into natural and human society. Since then the high schools have reported the numbers of pupils studying languages, mathematics, natural science and history.

Let us go over the results as to the South (omitting Missouri) in this comparison:

Forty-nine thousand nine hundred and sixty-eight pupils were studying algebra last year (1902) in the South Atlantic and South Central States.

Algebra is a difficult study, but it gives an insight into the construction of arithmetic. If a person in later life should forget his arithmetic he may readily reconstruct its rules, if he has studied algebra at some time in his youth for a year. He can perform far more difficult problems by its method than he ever could perform by simple arithmetic. No advanced course of study in mathematics can be pursued except by the aid of algebra.

Besides these students in Algebra, there were 20,908 youths in the Southern high schools studying geometry. This branch shows the necessary structure of all bodies that exist in space. Algebra and geometry are tools of thought that enable men to control matter and motion. They are among the most practical of all branches for giving directive power.

My attention was called to this practical phase of high school mathematics thirty years ago, when one of our high school boys in St. Louis, Missouri, took a humble position in the water works office of that city. Some pipes in the lower part of the city next to the river burst, and the new ones by which they were replaced did not last long. This boy made a calculation and found that the pressure of a hundred and fifty feet of water is something like sixty pounds to the square inch, and that this was more than the regulation pipe used could stand, and he, on request of the manager, made a formula by which the proper regulation standard of pipes could be fixed. This boy was promoted.

In 1902 there were 3,518 pupils in Southern high schools studying trigonometry, the branch which underlies surveying, navigation and astronomy. Its practical use is evident.

There were 1,992 students in astronomy, 4,890 in chem-

istry, 3,142 in geology, 28, 495 in human physiology, 13,185 in physical geography and 16,034 in physics. It is well known that physical geography bears nearly the relation to common geography that algebra bears to arithmetic; it enables one to explain it and see the necessity of the various processes of formation that are going on constantly in the structure of the earth's surface.

Physics, on the other hand, or natural philosophy, describes and explains mathematically the various properties of matter and force, showing the structure of all kinds of machinery and giving an insight into electricity, steam, attraction of gravitation, the dynamics of water, the nature of the solar spectrum, the structure of the telescope and the microscope and the like.

Of all the branches that have to do with the conquest of Nature, physics is the most important for the pupil.

In the languages, 3,972 pupils in Southern high schools were studying French, 4,922 pupils studying German, 1,372 Greek, and 41,759 were studying Latin. Latin is the stock out of which the southern languages of Europe are formed. Even the northern languages get the most important part of their vocabularies from it, namely, the technical words for the sciences and the words expressing fine shades of thought and refined emotions. Even a brief study of Latin, say six months, is of immense value to enable one to be at home in the English language, of which three-fourths of the vocabulary is of Latin origin.

Besides these language studies, which deal with a knowledge of human nature, the high school gives other studies that help powerfully in the same direction. Thirty-two thousand eight hundred and eighty pupils in Southern high schools studied general history last year; 19,048 studied civil government, and did something to prepare themselves for their duties as citizens; 29,830 studied the history of English literature and did special work on pieces selected from great authors.

This is an age of the conquest of Nature by machinery.

One hears gladly the strong speeches made by progressive men in the South in favor of manual training and industrial training—there ought to be free industrial schools enough to enable each youth to learn the trade of his choice without resorting to the tedious and wasteful process of apprenticeship. It ought to be possible for any middle-aged man or woman to attend an evening school or a day school and learn a new trade in a few weeks or months—or, what is of quite as much importance to them, learn how to improve themselves in the trades they have been following for twenty years without acquiring any considerable skill, because of having no opportunity to learn the most approved new methods of manipulation. All this is true, but it remains a fact that the pupils who have well learned the common school branches are far better fitted to use machinery than the illiterate laborers who have served their long apprenticeships of seven or even twenty-seven years. And as for the pupils who have learned the high school course of study, they are out of sight of the pupils who have completed only the three R's in their ability to meet difficulties in adjusting machinery, keeping it in repair and at the highest rate of speed. The high school pupils furnish a far larger percentage of inventors—they can devise and suggest improvements to their machines. Besides this they show more capacity to direct the labor of others. They can meet and overcome obstacles—hence, they furnish such overseers as are cheap at high wages.

While education of the people of the South in elementary schools has made great progress in the past twenty years—reaching larger numbers of the population—about 14 in the hundred in 1870, 18 in the hundred in 1880 and 23 in the hundred in 1900—increasing school property from sixteen millions of dollars in 1875 to \$60,000,000 in 1900—increasing its annual school term from an average of 92 days to an average of 115 days in twenty years in the South Atlantic division and from 79 days to 101 days in the South Central division—while this progress in education has gone on the

South has increased the productive power of the individual by nearly fifty per cent. It has produced a laboring class that can use machinery to assist the strength of bone and muscle. It has made possible the great change of vocations from the production of mere raw materials to the production of the finished product. This is a change going on in all civilized countries. The machine is coming in at one end, and the mere drudge is going out at the other. The uneducated, unskilled man is not needed, for his hands and muscles cannot compete with the machine. But he is needed in the work of directing the machine. He is therefore called upon to step up from the occupation of the mere drudge to the occupation of the overseer of the machine. The change from hand work to brain work is a necessity. But this cannot go on without schools that fit the pupils out with alert and versatile intelligence.

Even in the fertile fields of the South, unskilled labor does not bring good wages. The skilled laborer in the city, using tools and directing machinery, earns and receives an average of double the wages that the farm hand gets.

But machinery is going out from the city to the farm, and the farm, too, needs fewer laborers, and can furnish more productions. The surplus farmers must go into mechanical industries, into transportation and commerce. Fewer and fewer people are needed for the production of the raw materials of food, clothing and shelter all the world over, thanks to mechanic inventions which are pushing the mere illiterate drudge out of his vocation. He must climb up or else starve in the attempt to compete with the machine.

This lesson is illustrated in a wonderful manner by the history of farming in the great Northwest. I have prepared a comparative table showing how machinery is changing the conditions of wealth in that region. The census reported the value of the products of the agricultural industry in North Dakota in 1890 at thirty-two cents per day for each man, woman and child in that State. In 1900 it reached

fifty-five cents a day, the highest average production ever reached by agriculture in America, so far as I am able to ascertain. In that State the laborer uses the most improved machinery and the steam engine for a motive power. But manufactures have not come there to any great extent—only three cents a day in 1890 and a slight raise in 1900, making a total of earnings of 58 cents a day for each inhabitant without counting earnings from commerce and transportation.

Iowa is an example of a much older and more populous State which has introduced machinery into agriculture and also developed a large amount of manufacturing in its cities and villages. In the decade of 1890-1900 it increased its agricultural production from 23 cents to 45 cents per day per capita—doubled it in ten years—and also increased its manufactures from six and one-half cents to eight cents a day earnings for each inhabitant in the same decade. This gives an aggregate of 53 cents a day per inhabitant from these two sources alone, without considering vast earnings from transportation and other sources, which would swell the total to over 60 cents a day for each member of the population, counting 365 days to the year.

Some States, counting the North Atlantic division and adding Delaware and Maryland from the South and Ohio and Illinois from the West, have very large earnings from manufactures.

The average earning per day of each inhabitant of Connecticut is 50 cents from manufactures and $8\frac{1}{2}$ cents from agriculture (total $58\frac{1}{2}$ cents). This agriculture is market gardening, which is rendered profitable by its proximity to great cities. The small State of Rhode Island leads all States in its quota of earnings from manufactures, which rise to the sum of 56 cents per day per inhabitant, to which it adds four cents a day from agriculture, making a total of 60 cents a day.

Massachusetts obtains 47 cents from manufactures and 4 cents from agriculture per day for each inhabitant, while

New York gets 39 cents a day from manufactures and nine cents from agriculture. Pennsylvania gets $34\frac{1}{2}$ cents from manufactures and nine cents from agriculture. The income from the mines of Pennsylvania is large, so is that from transportation in New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio.

Transportation is real production of value, because it carries goods from the place where they are not needed to the place where they are of use. Cotton carried from New Orleans or Savannah to Lowell or Manchester has increased its value by the cost of freight.

The per cent. of increase in value of manufactures in the South is greater than it is in the other census divisions, but its results do not appear so significant as they really are, since they are the beginning of what will be a vast and profitable industry in the South within comparatively a few years. North Carolina increased its daily per capita of earnings from manufactures from three cents to six cents—doubled it; while it increased its agricultural earnings from $8\frac{1}{2}$ cents per day to 13 cents (12.8 cents). South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama made increased earnings in manufactures from one cent to four cents per day for each inhabitant and the same in agriculture, reaching an aggregate of 19 cents each per capita. Virginia, Florida, Mississippi, Arkansas earned 21 cents per day per capita, Tennessee $20\frac{1}{2}$ cents, Louisiana 22 cents, Kentucky 25 cents and Texas 26 cents daily per inhabitant.

Counting in all the earnings in whatever line of industry, the nation averaged in 1880 about 44 cents per day per each man, woman and child; and in 1890 it arose to $51\frac{1}{2}$ cents.

The wisdom of founding a free school system, seen from an economic point of view, lies in the fact that it makes possible an easy change of vocations among its people. It puts alertness and versatility in place of mere brute strength and persistency. More than this, it puts aspiration and ambition into its pupils. It makes them acquainted

with what mankind have done and teaches them the way in which they can do equal or greater things.

All over the South cities are growing in size and number, cities bring together the producer and the consumer. The city, too, is the necessary resort of the surplus laborers no longer needed on the farm. We do not need so many people to get for us the raw materials of food, clothing and shelter, but we need more and more people to turn these raw materials into articles of comfort and luxury. We need more and more people to work at transportation and intercommunication. We need more persons in the work of giving culture to the rest. The savage tribe, unaided by machinery, can afford only one man for the production of ornament—nearly all are needed for the supply of food and clothing of the plainest sort. But the partly civilized tribe can afford ten persons for the production of ornament and luxury. The proportion increases rapidly as we ascend in the use of machinery, and the time is arrived now when more than a hundred in a thousand are needed for the production of ornaments and luxury.

In transportation and intercommunication with railroads, telegraphs, postal systems, newspapers, books, libraries, schools and churches—here the line of industrial occupations rises from mere transportation through intercommunication up to culture. In these employments more and more persons will be needed.

Instead of ninety-nine drudges producing raw material and one person working to furnish and diffuse directive intelligence, it will come to pass in the distant future that one man will, by the aid of machinery, furnish the raw material, another man's labor will make the useful articles for food, clothing and shelter, ten more will elaborate articles of comfort and luxury, the rest, more than 80 per cent. of the community, will take up vocations having to do with protection and culture.

The work of education is the direct work of helping individuals to help themselves. It does not go on as fast as

it should, nor as far as it should. The average schooling for the entire nation is at present only 1,032 days for each person. This would give five years—each year of 200 days—enough to take a pupil through the primary schools of a city and a little more.

Small as is the schooling given by our nation to its people, some five years apiece, on the average, it suffices to make reading and writing universal, and with them gives also a limited acquaintance with the rudiments of arithmetic and geography. This fits the citizen to become a reader of the daily newspaper, and thus to bring him under an educating influence that will continue throughout his life. A newspaper civilization is one that governs by means of public opinion. The newspaper creates public opinion. No great free nation is possible except in a newspaper civilization. By aid of the printed page, the school-educated person makes present to himself daily the events of the world and lives an epic life. For the epic life is the life of nations. A certain portion of the day of each citizen is given to contemplating world events, and to discussing them. He sees the doings of his state and nation, and forms his own opinion. His opinion in the aggregate, with those of his fellow citizens, is collected and offered to the world by the newspaper.

This is the greatest and most important service of our educational system, to give the people the power to read—just their vocations, and to climb up to better paid and more useful industries out of lives of drudgery, is a great thing, a sufficient reason in itself for establishing a public school system. But to give the people the power of participating in each other's thoughts—to give each one the power to contribute his influence to the formation of a national public opinion—is a far greater good; for it looks forward to the millenium, when no wars will be needed for the mediation of hostile ideas.

The study we have made on the growth of the public high school system in the South reveals to us the presence

and activity of a great auxiliary force that has come to aid the elementary schools in this their great work.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

First Baptist Church — 3:30 p. m., December 31, 1903.

The Department of Superintendence was convened at 3:30 p. m. in the main assembly room of the First Baptist church, the president, Supt. J. C. Compton, of Leesburg, Fla., being in the chair.

As the secretary, Prin. Thos. B. Hamby, of Asheville, N. C., was absent, Principal W. G. Blake, Spartanburg, S. C., was asked to serve.

Supt. Frank Evans, Spartanburg, S. C., read a paper on The Superintendent's Inspection of Schools.

The discussion was continued by Supt. Jere M. Pound, Macon, Ga.

Secretary Tighe here stated that he should like to recommend in this connection the reading of those articles appearing in The Forum by Dr. Rice, of the "Society for Educational Research."

The next subject coming up for discussion was The Effects of School Environment Upon the Character and Intellect of Pupils. As neither of the appointed speakers, Supt. B. C. Graham, Tampa, Fla., nor Supt. J. C. Harris, Rome, Ga., was present, the discussion of this subject was postponed until the next meeting.

The topic, Qualifications and Conditions to be Considered in the Selection of Teachers, was next taken up. Supt. D. R. Murphy, of Anniston, Ala., read a paper.

This paper was followed by one from Supt. E. A. Pound, Waycross, Ga.

The meeting then adjourned to reassemble on the afternoon of the following day.

3:30 P. M. JANUARY 1, 1904.

The second session of the Department of Superintendence convened in the First Baptist church at 3:30 p. m., Superintendent Compton presiding.

The topic deferred from last session, namely, The Effects of School Environment Upon the Character and Intellect of pupils was now taken up, and, in the absence of the appointed speakers, Prin. W. G. Blake, Spartanburg, S. C., whose remarks appear elsewhere, was the first speaker.

The next and last subject for consideration was: Is Consolidation of Schools Feasible? Upon this topic Supt. Geo. P. Glenn, Jacksonville, Fla., read a paper.

Great interest was manifested in the contents of this paper; and, while there was little time left for discussion, many questions were asked by those present, and answered by Mr. Glenn.

In consideration of the interest and importance of this subject of school consolidation, many expressed themselves as desirous of having the next session of the Association meet at Jacksonville, Fla., as most favorable opportunity would thereby be afforded for studying the system where it has been successfully worked out.

The discussion having now ended, a short business session was held.

It being in order to choose officers for the coming year, an election was held, which resulted in the choice of the following: President, E. H. Mark, Louisville, Ky.; vice-president, Supt. J. C. Compton, Leesburg, Fla.; secretary, J. D. Gwaltney, Rome, Ga.

On motion by Superintendent Phillips, a committee of three was authorized to be appointed by the incoming president at an early date, whose duty it should be to make a thorough investigation of the matter of school consolidation

in the South, and which should be given a place for its report upon the regular program.

The session was then adjourned.

W. G. BLAKE, Secretary pro tem.

SUPERINTENDENTS' INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS.

FRANK EVANS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SPARTAN-
BURG, S. C.

The functions of the office of superintendent of public schools have become so well defined now that it is necessary for me to discuss only a few of them.

That the work of the superintendent should include at least a directive oversight in the construction of school houses and the purchasing of supplies; that heating, lighting, ventilating, and repairing all come in a manner under his inspection; that he must prescribe the blanks to be used and the records to be kept; that he should nominate the teachers to be appointed and dismiss those who are incompetent, or, at least, that the appointment and dismissal of teachers should be a divided responsibility between the superintendent and the board of education, are questions which have been repeatedly discussed in school meetings and in educated magazines with but one result. Our ablest school men agree that this much authority is requisite for the highest efficiency in school administration. The reason they have argued them so often is that many cities and towns fail to grant them.

In small towns the members of the board being in close touch with the schools are jealous of their authority. They frequently assume the right as individuals to direct teachers in their duties, to review cases of discipline, taking upon themselves supervisory powers. The superintendent is a sort of errand boy for the board.

In many of the larger cities the spoils system prevails,

and the superintendent is made the tool of municipal politicians. In both instances the boards of education are not honorable bodies, and the superintendents who do their bidding are cheap men.

I should like to announce to the public that we are unanimous on these propositions. That it is no longer necessary to discuss them in our meetings. The responsibility of putting them into practice rests now with school boards and not with superintendents.

I wish to say in the beginning that I have had no experience as superintendent in towns of over 15,000 people. Consequently, much that is set forth in this paper may be applicable only to towns and small cities.

Let us suppose that all the houses needed have been built and equipped, the superintendent elected, and that everything is ready for the selection of teachers. If the pay offered is at all adequate the number of applicants will be large, and by far the greater number of them will be from the community—"home talent," their friends will argue. There may not be one good and experienced teacher in the place. If a small town, it would be unusual should there be more than three or four of such teachers. Consequently the force must be strengthened by appointment of some well equipped teachers from outside. Small cities cannot afford a normal school. But the school system of the town may represent a training-school of which the untrained teachers and the substitutes are the students and the superintendent and the trained teachers are the instructors. The trained teachers' classes become at once a model school and a practice school for the substitute teachers. Certain of the best regular teachers are selected whom the pupil teachers are sent to observe. The teacher explains the purposes of her work. The pupil teacher is expected to take notes and ask questions. After a while, when she begins to become familiar with the methods of teaching, the substitute is required to teach the class herself, under the supervision of the regular teacher, who is expected to hand to the superintendent a written criticism of the work. These criticisms

often bring about a conference of the superintendent, the teacher, and the substitute. In this way the substitute learns how to plan the lessons, to call the classes to order, and to dismiss them, besides having the opportunity of the advice of friendly critics.

When the time for the annual election of teachers comes, the board will feel under no obligation to appoint applicants from home, except those who have done satisfactory work in the training class. The board is generally relieved to have the number of applicants reduced in this way.

When a good corps of teachers is secured the superintendent can put his best thought upon the teachers' meetings: demonstrating the principles underlying their methods, inspiring the teachers with a spirit of self-culture, acting as their adviser and teacher. Then in his visits to the classrooms he should see that his plans are carried out. He must see that the principles he discovers are applied; otherwise, his work will not do much good. Teachers are required to report their success or failure—privately at first, and then in the teachers' meetings, if the experience would be worth anything to the others. It is frequently necessary to give individual help, but a principle known to be sound should never be given up because of the dullness or indifference of the teacher. Give up the teacher.

When this is done the superintendent alone is responsible for the work, and he should protect his teachers against ignorant criticism, captious complaints, and abusive letters. He should be ready to defend them against the remarks of unpleasant visitors, rude boys, gossiping girls, and their mothers.

People are beginning to see the necessity of having trained teachers. Those who have children to educate think that no teacher is too good for our schools. Those indeed who have friends seeking positions talk about home talent.

It matters very little ten years hence if a man has a good education whether his teacher came from abroad or was to the manor born; but if his mental training has been neglected and he should fail at college or in business, it would

be a matter of poor consolation to him that his teacher was the daughter of a veteran at home, or that she was poor and needed the money. The young women of our towns do not need money half so much as our children need educating.

Behavior on the street while going to and from the school should be under the inspection of the superintendent and the teachers. There is some difference of opinion on this point. The city schools usually have a rule to the effect that principals shall see that children are sent home immediately after school, and that the neighborhood is not disturbed by them either in going to school or returning therefrom. Parents who are incapable of controlling their children, and object to their being controlled by others, insist that disorderly conduct on the streets should be regulated by police officers. This is narrow and impracticable in the extreme. Policemen pay no attention to cigarette smoking, nor to the taunting insults of bullies. They do not protect girls from the indecent remarks of rude and unmannerly boys. The moment a pupil leaves home with his books in the morning till he reports to his parents in the afternoon he should be under the direction of the superintendent. The more intelligent citizens do not object to this regulation. Sensible people do not wish that bad boys should grow up uncorrected.

II.—THE NEGRO SCHOOLS.

The superintendent is an executive officer and a teacher also, that is, he must exert a pedagogical influence upon all the schools under his direction. When I say *all* I mean *all*—white and black. The negro schools come under our inspection. The course of study and the methods of teaching in the primary and intermediate grades at least of the negro schools is identical with those of the white schools. Very much has been said lately on the subject of manual training for negro children. Eighty per cent. of the negro children in my city today have not the mental training necessary to begin manual training as it should be taught. Fifty per cent. of them are in the first grade.

In some of our cities thousands of dollars have been invested in this industrial education of the negro, while his primary education, taking the whole mass, has been wholly inadequate to his needs. In other cities this so-called industrial training for negroes is nothing more than a scheme to throw dust into the eyes of the public.

Manual training is good. But there is no excuse to neglect mental training. The teaching which secures obedience and good order, which builds up character, is the best teaching, whether the pupils be white or black.

Pupils who are absent or tardy must bring to the teacher a written excuse, signed by the parent or guardian. The negroes have not been required to observe this rule, on the ground that so few of the parents can write. Consequently the children are not regular or punctual in their attendance. Truancy is too frequent.

They should no longer be excused from the observance of this regulation. Every negro between the age of 20 and 50 ought to be able to write *now*.

I have enforced the rule as to written excuses very successfully during the month just closed—November. When it was announced that written excuses would be required in the negro schools, just as in the white schools, the negro teachers thought that it would be impracticable. The pupils protested that their parents could not write. Many of the parents who could write legibly enough said that they did not know how to write excuses.

At the next meeting of the colored teachers I invited all the negro preachers to be present. They came willingly, and some of the parents came too. I explained to this conference the importance of having parents to send written excuses whenever it became necessary to excuse their children from any duty; the importance of putting their own signatures to the monthly report cards which were sent to them from the teachers. I tried to make them understand the object of the monthly report cards; I told them that 100 meant perfect; 80 to 90 good, 60 to 70 poor, etc. I told them that if one received 50 on attendance he had been

at school only half the time, and 50 on one of his studies meant that he had missed half of his lessons, etc. We wished them to sign and return these cards in order that we may be sure they had received them.

Knowing that the mass of the negroes do not read newspapers, I requested the preachers to make the announcement from their pulpits. I urged them to appeal to the pride of their people, and tell them that they ought to be ashamed to say that they could not write excuses when they could write; that they ought not to be willing just to let this thing go.

The day after this announcement was made, after a careful canvass of each grade, it was found that only six and one-thrd per cent. of the entire enrollment of the negro school were unable to bring written excuses because neither parent could write. The negroes are proud of the result.

When the pay is only moderate the best trained negro teachers may be secured if the superintendent will take the trouble to select them. The brightest and best equipped negro women teach school. There is no higher position for them. College graduates who have had normal training and successful experience in actual teaching may be obtained. Many of them are excellent primary teachers. Those who undertake higher work are inclined to be bookish. This can be accounted for in part because they have so few to read.

The negro works better under supervision. Left to himself, he works without plan or method. He is, and must be for a long time, a rote worker. Consequently his teaching reflects the training given him by the supervisor. Hence, the supervisor should be very explicit in his directions. He should meet his negro teachers regularly for the purpose of instructing them in their grade work. He should give them model lessons occasionally. He should guard them against being too formal. Negroes are apt to fall into formal teaching.

The superintendent should give them explicit directions as to how to maintain good order: not in the school room

only, but in the yard and on the street. Every child should be on the playground at recess, and every teacher should be there too. They have a better opportunity on the playground than they have in the class-room to teach good manners. They can teach them to be fair in their games and to behave properly towards each other. They can teach self-control. On the streets, pupils should be taught to modulate their voices, and not shriek and scream and make disagreeable noises; to keep to the right side of the walk, so as not to interfere with people walking in the opposite direction.

It is well to have the negro schools to adjourn a quarter of an hour later than the white schools, in order that there shall be no unpleasant collisions between the races. The best discipline is that which prevents offenses from coming, not that which deals skillfully with offenses after they have come.

In matters of discipline it depends more on who the man is and what respect he commands on the part of those whom he directs, than on what method of dealing with a particular offense he may adopt. Narrow and sectional as this view may appear, I cannot refrain from saying that superintendents of Southern schools should be Southern men. Many of our best grade teachers and some excellent principals have come to us from the Northern States. I hope they will continue to come. But the Northern man doesn't understand the negro, and the negro doesn't understand him. Progressive teachers who disagree with me on this point would certainly change their opinions if they should have the same experience with this matter that I have had. Not very long ago I switched some white boys for wantonly mistreating negro pupils on the street. Very little was said about it. The parents of the offending boys did not complain. If I had been a Northern man the occurrence would have created a sensation. Not that Northern superintendent could not have dealt with the offenders as skillfully as I did; not that he could have handled the rod any less effectually; but the mere fact of his being a Northern man

punishing Southern boys for their conduct towards negro children would have enraged those parents. You may say that this is prejudice. This is true, but it exists all the same.

If you would gain the negro's confidence you must first gain his sympathy, and you can gain neither his sympathy nor his respect by putting yourself on the same social plane with him. He is naturally and justly suspicious of those who pretend social equality with him.

Negro preachers and other leaders should not be allowed to make speeches in the school house except by permission of the superintendent. It is well for the superintendent to be present whenever addresses from outsiders are to be made. By paying attention to this point, he will be able to save the school and himself from a great deal of ignorant criticism.

Just a word on the subject of race atagonism:

On the 30th of November I wrote return postal cards to the superintendents of eight of the largest cities in South Carolina, upon which, among others, was submitted the following question: "Do you believe that instruction by negro teachers upon the race question is calculated to excite race antagonism?" The superintendent of only one town in South Carolina answered "I do" to this question. From five of the largest cities in the State, namely, Charleston, Columbia, Spartanburg, Greenville and Sumter, came the answer "No," or "Not my teachers." The affirmative answer came from Aiken. Aiken is a winter resort for Northern people. The relations between the races there are not so agreeable as they are in other South Carolina towns. Believing that the condition might be due to the influence of Northern visitors, I submitted the same question to the superintendents of Asheville, N. C., and of Jacksonville, Fla., cities having similar conditions. The reply from Jacksonville was "Somewhat," and from Asheville, "I should think it would depend somewhat upon the teacher." The Aiken superintendent says that his supervision of the negro schools is only nominal. The superintendent of schools of Jacksonville states that he is required to visit the negro

schools only two hours a year. These statements go very far towards explaining their answers to the questions submitted.

I may have wandered somewhat from my subject, but I make no apology for introducing the race question here. Disfranchisement will not solve the negro problem. It will be solved, if it is solved at all, by the education of the masses of both races. The facts which I have gathered here show plainly that the politicians, in South Carolina at least, who have been making reckless statements about the bad results of educating negroes have not got their information from school superintendents.

This is a problem to be worked out by the Southern Educational Association. The politicians have bungled. The question has been too much discussed ; too little studied.

ABSTRACT OF REMARKS BY PRINCIPAL W. G. BLAKE.

Referring to an article written recently in criticism of our public school system by Mr. Geer, a New York divine, and to the investigation made by *The Outlook* of certain charges preferred by him, resulting in an almost unanimous acquittal of the schools from said charges, Mr. Blake said that if the impression was made to prevail that the outcome of our schools was a product of high moral quality, then *The Outlook's* article was unfortunate, and would conceal the truth. In the matter of moral training he believed our schools to be justly subject to criticism. Not that they are hot-beds of moral depravity, but that, inasmuch as the training of the consciences of our children is not definitely provided for in our schools, and character is left largely to take care of itself, therefore we cannot expect a high order of moral development in those who pass through these schools. And this applies about equally to private schools and public schools. The following argument, in brief, was used to fortify him in this position :

Most wonderful progress has been made in intellectual and material interests in this country since the establishment of our public school system, the nation having forged ahead in nearly everything that hand or brain can produce; therefore, since the hands and the brains that have accomplished all this have received their best training in the public schools and colleges, these institutions should receive large credit for so great achievement. But, on the other hand, what have these schools to show for the morals of the men who have passed through them? Mr. Blake here quoted from several prominent writers to prove that undoubtedly there never was a time in the history of our people when the laxity of morals in our midst had reached such alarming proportions. Any casual reader of our magazines and newspapers would be struck with this fact. Now, if our schools are to be credited with the groundwork of this marvelous progress we have made in intellectual, commercial and industrial matters, are they to be relieved of all responsibility for the existing state of morals amongst us? Would we note today the shameful prevalence of fraud and chicanery in the administration of our national, state and municipal governments, if character training had received its due share of attention in our schools?

It will not do to depend on the homes alone for the ethical training of our children; for at least one-third of the child's waking hours is spent under the eye of the teacher, while less than one-fourth is under the eye of the parent. And where the opportunity is, should not *there* be the responsibility?

The speaker thought that one of the most subtle and dangerous evils of our schools was the acquirement of habits of petty dishonesty in the school room. Owing to crowded conditions, and the necessity of much written work by pupils at their desks, the temptation to copy and to cheat was almost insuperable. Thus lying and deception are fostered, and this sort of thing, going on year after year, the very foundations of character are undermined. Is it strange, then, that twenty-two boys out of a class of thirty-

one up here at Princeton the other day were caught cheating on examination? And is it strange that corruption is so rife among men holding high and responsible positions in our nation?

Mr. Blake did not take a gloomy view of the future of our schools, for he thought that education would soon recognize the need of systematic moral training for our children, and make it of paramount importance in public education. Of course, how to apply the remedy is the rub, but that would doubtless receive the most careful attention and best thought of our educators through the century.

The discussion being thrown open to the house Superintendent Tighe said that he knew of a prominent merchant who claimed that the boys he employed from the public schools were notoriously dishonest. Mr. Tighe asked whether any one present knew if morals were anywhere systematically taught in the public schools, receiving negative response so far as the use of text books or appointed lessons on morals were concerned.

However, Supt. Mark, of Louisville, Ky., said that, while he agreed with Mr. Blake as to the evident retrogression in morals of our people, yet he did not think the public schools were responsible for it. He believed that the habits formed in our schools were good on the whole—that if children were properly cared for in the home and on the street, the school could be trusted to do its part.

FEASIBILITY OF CONSOLIDATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS.

SUPT. GEORGE P. GLENN, JACKSONVILLE, FLA.

An up-to-date educational journal wisely suggests that the social philosophers who are seeking an explanation for the rush of the rural population to the city, should turn their eyes upon the district school. It is undoubtedly one of the overlooked causes.

Thousands of country people sell or rent their farms and go into town in order to give their children educational advantages which they cannot have in the country schools as they are at present conducted.

The pronounced educational advantages of the city are irresistibly attractive to the enterprising American, who always believes in the efficacy of education. If the schools of the city are to remain so incomparably better than those of the country, the exodus of the farmers to the city will continue.

OF RECENT DATE.

A generation ago this incomparable difference did not exist; neither did there then exist a well developed art of teaching, such as we see applied in our city schools today, but not in our rural schools. This is a second incomparable difference quite adequate to cause the first.

As a verification of this cause, we find the art of learning very generally well developed among pupils of city schools, while it is displayed in rural schools by only a few—a few mental giants of whom Cicero, in his comments on the genius of nature and the genius of industry, says: "Something marvelous may be expected from the youth who has both. These rare combinations of genius, in the past, have performed the wonderful feat of capturing the art of learning despite the adverse conditions of the rural school. Unfortunately, they do not represent the masses of country school children.

Doctor Hinsdale says: "One of the most valuable arts that a boy or girl, a young man or young woman can learn, is the art of study."

Jefferson Davis, in a letter to a Mississippi teacher, has incidentally left us the following excellently worded pedagogic thought: "The art of learning and the endowment to teach must both be developed in youth."

From these thoughts, one may correctly imply that every normally constituted child, every youth or maiden, is gifted with the endowment to study, the inherent ability to learn;

also, that such endowment must be developed into an art during the period of youth, or lie dormant for life.

If, then, we note correctly that this all important art of study or art of learning is quite apparent among pupils of the city school, but generally dormant among pupils of rural schools, we have discovered adequate cause for the incomparable excellence of the city school, and we who have charge of rural education should hasten to engraft that cause into the country schools with all possible speed.

THE FAULT LOCATED.

As we have already implied that the development of the pupil's art of learning is a direct product of the teacher's art of teaching, it might seem to follow that the rural teacher has been blamable for the inferiority of the country school. Such a conclusion would be false; but the one man who is specially at fault in this matter is the county superintendent.

He should have long ago been discerning enough to discover that the application and very existence of the art of teaching has been *possible* in the city school because of its *peculiar organization*, and *impossible* in the rural school because of its *peculiar lack* of organization. He ought to have had the professional sagacity to note that this lack of organization was due to its own delinquency.

Added to such discernment and sagacity, he should have had force of character sufficient to abandon the old rural school system for something better.

If his board of public instruction may have opposed his efforts in the past, he may now say to them that the state department of politics is about to outstrip his department of education, in the fact that he has young electors growing up who cannot vote the Australian ballot in five minutes, and in the paramount fact that he has many young electors and more to follow, who have not acquired sufficient art of learning to get knowledge from the printed pages of current political literature to the end that they may intelligently cast their ballots for the nomination of all candidates for

office from governor down to constable, at the coming election.

CENTRALIZING RURAL SCHOOLS.

During the last decade nearly all the Northern States, from Maine and Massachusetts through to Minnesota, have adopted, to some extent, the plan of centralizing rural schools as a means of improving them.

Massachusetts was the pioneer by many years, and has very definite legislation on the subject. Pennsylvania newspapers are filled with enthusiasm over the prospect of an early State management of the new system. Ohio has long since carried her Kingsville centralized school far beyond the pale of experiment, and has brought it into national repute. Indiana and Illinois superintendents are making pilgrimages to Ohio's Mecca, the school at Kingsville, to inspect its mode of operating; while Wisconsin and Mississippi and North Carolina write to Florida, seeking Duval County's experience and method of transportation connected with her centralization of rural schools during the last six years. Duval modestly replies that the dawn of the twentieth century finds her well advanced in the execution of the greatest educational reform likely to be accomplished in this nation before that century ends.

DUVAL COUNTY PLAN.

In this county seven years ago there were forty-five rural schools, of one teacher each, for white children, established by former administrations. The work of these schools was so unsatisfactory in general, and the per capita of expense ran so high in many of them, that the present administration determined to reduce the number to fifteen schools of three teachers each.

A statutory clause of the State implies that school children must not be required to walk to school more than one mile and a half. Hence, in choosing the sites for the centralized schools, the one having the greatest number of children within a radius of one mile and a half has generally been chosen.

Seven of these schools are now in operation, each accommodating the children of about sixty to one hundred square miles of territory. Others will be established as rapidly as funds will permit.

TRANSPORTATION.

The concentration of the children who live more than one mile and a half from these new schools is accomplished by means of wagonetts, specially designed for the purpose, and provided by the board of public instruction, at the public expense. They are of such capacity as to carry eight, ten, twelve, fourteen, sixteen, eighteen and twenty pupils, respectively, and cost from \$70 to \$100 each. Year before last twenty-seven of these comfortable vehicles were running, at an average cost of \$23.33 1-3.

These twenty-seven conveyances enabled us to close twenty-four of the old one-teacher schools, the current cost of which had previously been \$45.50 per month for each.

Hence, our transportation system now in operation produces a current saving of \$462 per month over the old method.

This gross saving was reduced by \$225, the increase in salaries for assistant teachers at the centralized schools, and there was still left a net saving of \$237 per month.

During a single term of eight months this net saving amounts almost to the entire cost of the twenty-seven wagons, and since the life of a well made wagon is about five years, four-fifths of this saving can be devoted to the extension of the new system and to better facilities for teaching. Therefore, even in a financial way, centralization in Duval County, Fla., is a decided success.

PROFESSIONAL ADVANTAGES.

Professionally there seems to be nothing objectionable, and of the many advantages the following are the most important:

1. The teachers' work is so well organized that the average recitation period is trebled.

2. The effort of the teacher is more effective by means of a more adequate equipment.

3. Truancy is wholly eliminated; the health of the pupils is preserved against bad weather and worse roads, but especially from impure drinking water of former days.

4. Many children formerly so isolated as never to have access to any school are now accommodated, to the advantage of the system, financially.

5. Local prejudice and family feuds are so completely merged that one or two large families cannot "freeze out" the teacher.

6. As a sequence to all these favorable conditions, the average attendance is increased twelve and a half per cent., giving a corresponding increase of school funds from the State.

7. The country maiden may and does continue her education even into the appreciative days of womanhood without fear of molestation by the ubiquitous tramp or other vagrant vagabond.

8. The youth prolongs his school days to the ambitious verging into manhood, because his aspirations for intellectual progress have been encouraged—he has been given time and opportunity *to think*, and to talk.

9. The farmer and his family are becoming more content with their independent, self-sustaining occupation, preferring to have their children educated in these efficient rural schools, where, during the character-forming period of youth, ethical culture is free from the dissipations of social life as manifested in our cities.

10. The development of the art of teaching by young aspirants is more feasible to the superintendent. His efforts at supervision are more frequent and more effective.

On his rounds of duty, and at sight of the old, abandoned school houses, he thinks of Whittier's lines—

"Still sits the school house by the road,
A ragged beggar, sunning."

Simply sunning, each a moss-covered monument, befit-

ting the raggedest, most beggarly system of rural education ever devised by man—and an appropriate epitaph on each would be, “Now departed, but not lamented.”

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

MINUTES OF THE MEETING.

First Baptist Church — 3:00 p. m., Friday, January 1, 1904.

The Department of Higher Education of the Southern Educational Association met in the Sunday-school room of the First Baptist Church, and was called to order by Chancellor R. B. Fulton, of Mississippi. The first topic on the program, “Summer Schools and Higher Education,” was presented by Dr. Thos. P. Bailey, and discussed by several others.

Due explanation was made by the Chairman of the error made in the printing of the name of Dr. Wallace Buttrick in the program after he had found it impracticable to be present, and of the absence of others named in the program.

Upon request, the Chairman made some explanation of the mode of appointing scholars by the Cecil Rhodes trustees, and the value of these scholarships.

After some discussion of this matter, the section adjourned.

Respectfully,

R. B. FULTON, Chairman.

Note.—As no officers were elected for this department, President Hill has asked Chancellor Fulton to act as President during the coming year. This he has consented to do.

R. J. TIGHE, Sec’y S. E. A.

SUMMER SCHOOLS AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

SYNOPSIS OF ADDRESS OF PROF. THOMAS P. BAILEY, JR.,
UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI.

The University Summer School is mainly the effect of two modern tendencies: (1) Democracy in Education, "the greatest good of the greatest number," and (2) The utilization of the university resources for the whole year instead of only three-quarters thereof.

The Summer School reaches mainly three classes of people—regular students, teachers and the general public. Regular students have a fine opportunity for doing advanced work, and can often secure more individual attention during the summer term. The attendance of the general public gives a first rate form of university extension, and helps produce the right culture-spirit in a college community. But it is the teachers that need the university most, while the university in turn needs them. Through the summer work the teacher has the privilege of being taught by men and women of ability and character. And so the children are reached through their teachers. On the other hand the instructors in the summer schools are brought into vital touch with the primary and secondary schools and their problems. If the summer work could be followed up not only by institute work for teachers who cannot leave home, but also by university extension work in representative towns, the results of the summer school would be still more far-reaching.

The most telling work is done when the most available teachers in the university faculty co-operate with educational leaders from other counties, and with the most practically helpful workers in the field reached by the university. Too little "fresh blood" may lead to stagnation; too much, to "headiness."

In organizing a University Summer School, it is quite important that the physical comfort of the students be

carefully looked after. Many summer schools crowd their programmes unduly. Especially ought boarding and lodging arrangements to be organized with the utmost care months in advance of the summer school.

While both academic and professional work ought to be offered the teachers, the former ought to be emphasized rather than the latter. The retailing of pedagogical platitudes is benumbing to the hearers, especially when they are sighing for inspiration free from the taint of "shop." Since many teachers need academic training of the secondary grade, such work ought to be provided for them in a few branches only, and with an adequate corps of instructors who can attend to the individual teacher's needs. The college work proper should connect with the work of other terms.

University training and university inspiration ought to be results aimed at in all the summer school work, because the University Summer School even in its most popular aspects must occupy the university point of view and use university methods. Teachers' institutes and other agencies can well do some of the work of "high school extension." University work generalizes widely and specializes deeply. It gives a large conspectus and a thorough-going mastery of small groups of details. The summer term ought neither to prose nor to give a superficial smattering.

If the instructors could meet together and briefly explain their work to one another, if they could visit one another's class rooms occasionally, if they would attempt to further one another's work in every way possible; the results in the minds of the students would show more orderliness and not less stimulation.

Opposing points of view and conflicting themes are often stimulating, but too much mental stimulation may lead to intellectual inebriety or to hopeless weariness or confusion.

The summer schools of the South have a good opportunity for working on problems of peculiar importance to Southerners. Among these are the following: The peren-

nial " negro question," " industrial education," " better rural schools," " lawlessness; its causes and its cure;" " the preservation of typical Southern virtues."

Above all things, the University Summer School ought to be careful in its choice of instructors. It should avoid freaks and hacks, and encourage inspirers and trainers.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL AND MANUAL ARTS.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

First Baptist Church — 3 p. m., Friday, January 1, 1904.

The meeting of this department was called to order by President C. C. Thach, of the Alabama Polytechnic Institute. Prof. A. H. Ford, of the Georgia School of Technology, was appointed secretary.

President C. C. Thach read a paper on Scientific Education in the South.

During the discussion of this paper Mr. W. C. A. Hammel told of the manual training work in Maryland, where \$1,500 per annum is given to each county for this work; Mr. E. E. Uterback described the work being done in the Atlanta schools, and Miss Bunnie Love gave her experience with a school garden, where each child had a plat of ground eight feet square which he was at liberty to plant as he pleased.

Prof. A. H. Ford then read a paper on the Development of Engineering Education.

Mr. W. C. A. Hammel was elected president of the department for the next year.

On motion the name of the department was changed to the Department of Industrial and Manual Arts.

A committee consisting of Messrs. Hammel, Hubel and Ford was appointed to secure greater prominence for the work of this department at the next convention.

A. H. FORD, Secretary.

SCIENTIFIC EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH.

PRESIDENT C. C. THACH, ALABAMA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE,
AUBURN.

Happy shall I deem myself if I am able to speak one word that will promote upon this occasion the cause of scientific, technical education, which, indeed, is the supreme agency whereby the great material resources of our section can be rehabilitated and the South brought to that high place of wealth and influence which is rightly hers.

Mr. Cecil Rhodes, in that remarkable testament in which he bequeathed the bulk of his vast fortune to promote education, uses these significant words: "And, finally, as college authorities live secluded from the world and are so like *children* as to commercial matters, I would advise them to consult my trustees regarding the investment of these various funds, so far as they would receive great help and assistance from such advice." Truly a severe indictment, this, of the old mediæval or monastic type of education long dominant at Oxford, which has recently been called the home of culture, caste, and dead philosophies. And too often does the old-time or Oxford type of classical education develop this recluse of whom Mr. Rhodes speaks—the man, forsooth, of rare refinement, delicate sensibilities, exquisite taste, and elegant phrase; but withal the cloistered scholar, the dreamer, who, isolated and out of touch with the work-a-day world, dreams beautiful dreams, but gets nothing done; or, still sadder, perhaps, he is the man who follows the trade of gentleman, who regards his education as the badge of a social superiority, the mark of an intellectual aristocracy, and holds himself above and apart from ordinary everyday work, and out of all sympathy with his fellows. Doubtless from such misfits and abortions as these has sprung that wide-spread prejudice entertained by many excellent people concerning literary education, holding it, as they do, a useless luxury, and esteeming one who med-

dles with it as a mere theorist who is entirely unfit for business.

Be all this as it may (and much may be said in defense), the education of which we speak—the education called scientific, or technical, or industrial—has far other aims, methods and results than those of the old Oxford classical schools. Its aim is not to give culture alone, which, charming as it is, has been described by one as a selfish luxury, producing men who retire into their elegant pursuits and give themselves to self-culture with no further object. The aim of the new education, openly avowed, is rather to dignify labor and to fit men for the practical business of life. Without disparaging the educational value of the classics or the humanities, as they are called, which treat of *man* and his ways, it accentuates the value of the natural sciences that treat of *things* and their forces, and their immense value for the comfort and grace of human life. History, language, philosophy, art and literature it would not supplant, but *supplement* with chemistry, physics, agriculture and mechanics. While training the intellect and fashioning the sensibilities and the imagination of the youth, it would also train his constructive and executive ability by having him *do* something; translating the intangible abstract concept of the mind into the concrete, tangible thing of the laboratory. Education, according to this view, is for use as well as for ornament, a means, not an end, a great instrument for doing something that is worth doing. To increase the production of wealth in all its forms, to stimulate invention, to harness the forces of nature, to contribute to the material, physical welfare and happiness of man,—these are a few of the practical aims of technological schools, aims that have not hitherto received the emphasis that their importance strenuously demands.

This, to be sure, is a fragmentary and inadequate definition, but will, I hope, suffice to suggest the essential qualities and aims of the subject under discussion.

Speaking more specifically, technological schools may be classified under three heads: (1) The school or college of

technology, (2) the trade school, (3) the manual training school, or, as it is sometimes styled, the school for industrial or mechanical training. Of each of these I shall briefly speak.

COLLEGES OF TECHNOLOGY.

1.) To this first class, i. e., the higher schools of applied science, belong such institutions as Cornell University, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the Sheffield Scientific School, the Rose Polytechnic, the Rensselaer School of Civil Engineering, etc., and that splendid system of land-grant A. and M. Colleges existing today in every State of the Union, established through the far-reaching statesmanship of the great Senator from Vermont, Justin S. Morrill.

Now the purpose or aim of these colleges—as held by all the institutions enumerated—is not to teach a trade, not to develop merely the individual artisan who is to do mere manual work. This, it seems, were a mere waste of public money. The aim, the wiser aim, is rather to develop captains of industry, civil, electrical and mechanical engineers, chemists, agriculturists, metallurgists, men who, as entrepreneurs, or as superintendents, or as executive officers in every field of industry, are able to explore and exploit the material resources of the land, bringing labor and capital together in mutual gain, and who are able to plan, organize and direct industries of the greatest magnitude and of the most far-reaching influence upon the community.

TRADE SCHOOLS.

(2.) Of the second, or trade-school type of technological education, it will be necessary to speak but briefly. As a rule, there is no need for the specific trade schools in Alabama, or, for that matter, in the South. The conditions that call for them do not exist. In fact, the strictly trade school idea, the caste school, the school for the common people, is of European origin and is strongly repugnant to the American idea that every man is a citizen and that every American boy has the glorious birthright to an open

career, whether it be as farmer, teacher, preacher, banker or president. Such schools presuppose a dense population, a sharply articulated system of industries that are also highly localized, a rigid stratification of society into social classes, and the strong probability that the boy will succeed to his father's calling. Switzerland, for instance, has a system of schools in which pupils are taught the special trade of watch-making.

And the day may soon come when in a city of large population, say Atlanta or Birmingham, with some highly differentiated forms of industry, like pig-iron or steel making, the young people may with wisdom and advantage be instructed in all the sciences relating thereto.

MANUAL TRAINING IN THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

(3.) We now come to the third and last form of technological schools, and that is manual training schools, or schools for industrial education. Here the aim is not to train, on the one hand the engineer, nor, on the other hand, to develop the operative or the artisan, their purpose being rather distinctively educative in a general sense, though, too, the results, I believe, are of a highly practical value. "Manual training," says an authority, "includes drawing, design, carving, molding, joinery, piano playing—anything, in a word, which brings dexterity and furnishes a way of translating thought into immediate action." Its purpose is the training of the eye and the hand of the pupil and his acquisition of those elementary principles of physics and mechanics which underlie all dealings with the forces of nature and with material objects.

"One of the most significant facts of recent educational development," says the *World's Work*, "has been the rapid adoption in the public schools of manual training simply as a part of education, and not as a specific preparation for a trade." Ten years ago there were only 37 such public schools. Today there are 170 cities in which pupils of the public school receive manual training as part of their regular course. According to the report of the commissioner of

education, there are 125 separate schools distinctly devoted to manual training, with an attendance of 40,000 children. Both the National and Southern Educational Associations, realizing the great educational value of manual and industrial training, and the need of such training keenly felt throughout the South, resolved that the curriculum of every high school should include a through course in manual training.

Dr. Wm. LeRoy Broun established at Auburn the first manual training laboratory in the South, having thoroughly studied the Russian theory of mechanic arts instruction as displayed at the Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia in 1876. Of its nature and value as a teaching subject he says:

"From an experience of eight years in an institution where a well equipped laboratory of mechanic arts constitutes part of its educational equipment, I cannot express with too strong emphasis my appreciation of the beneficial effects of the modern method of teaching what is known as manual training. It has come to stay. Its object is not to make mechanics, nor the making of things, but the making of men. It develops order, accuracy, perseverance and self-reliance, and, while imparting manual skill and giving strength to the body, its exercises tend to a marked degree to develop the constructive and executive faculties.

"Drawing, which gives the ability to express the concept graphically, is also an essential element of a scientific education universally recognized of value. Hence, a school of drawing, as an adjunct to a school of mechanic arts, is a necessary department of a manual training school, and the manual training received from the series of graduated exercises, when combined with the study of science as practically taught in the laboratories, gives an education eminently fitted for the American boy of the nineteenth century."

In this connection I offer a most interesting letter from Mr. Blair, of Maryland, chairman of the executive committee of the Maryland Educational Association: "Under the head of paper, card-board, etc., you will find a total cost of about \$70 for a full year; this branch had about ninety scholars for about ten full months. In the wood-working classes we use a total for tools, etc., \$430. We use these for

three classes of from fifteen to twenty each. We have been using the tools for nearly three years, and none of them are broken or lost and seem to be in as good condition as when purchased. We gave our instructor \$600 last year and \$800 this year; and no doubt will raise him another hundred dollars next year. We give all manual training classes three hours per week; the boys like it. In fact, one of the punishments for poor work in the regular school work is depriving the offenders of the privilege to go to the manual training school.

"We have found very beneficial results from this work. The boys take a deeper interest in all of their work and stand better than before the introduction of manual training. The hand and the eye are trained and the habits of neatness and accuracy are cultivated so that in the school-room these are used to advantage in the regular studies.

"The State of Maryland appropriated fifteen hundred dollars per year to each county for manual training out of which the instructor's salary and all expenses must be paid. We have been fortunate in having the only one in our county (Baltimore county), so have the whole appropriation. Last year, after paying all expenses (which include buying all tools, etc.) we had a surplus of over two hundred and fifty dollars.

"The average age of the children doing paper work is nine years; they vary from eight to eleven. The next class, or those in card-board work, is about ten, varying from nine to twelve.

"After this they begin on knife work, lasting nearly a whole year, when at the age of thirteen they are ready for bench work."

The expense of equipment suggested by Prof. Blair, though small, may yet seem beyond the means of the smaller schools; but the system, I am assured by Supt. Gibson, of Columbus, Ga., can be established at a much smaller cost. Ample time for instruction can be obtained by judicious lopping off of subjects that are almost worse than useless. For instance, it is commonly agreed among

educators that entirely too much is expended by our school on certain portions of arithmetic. Surely a great portion of my own school days was expended upon all the fine intricacies of partial payments, interest and bank discount, for all of which I have found but precious little use. And certain lists of kings and of peaks and rivers in Siberia are about as digestible as a stomach full of marbles. Let some of this go and the time be applied to manual training. Certainly teachers and pupils and the public who have been once connected with this simultaneous training of the eye and the hand are enthusiastic believers in its beneficial effects. Mr. Walter Page declares it the first thoroughly sound plan of training youth since classicism began its career after the revival of learning in Europe.

Both the educational and economic advantages arising from manual training are obvious, though it were perhaps inappropriate to enter here upon technical details. The most luminous discussion of the advantages of manual training is that of the late Gen. Francis Walker, from whose essay the following points are summarized:

(1) First of all, the introduction of shop work into the public schools would find a place for that large number of boys who have no great aptitude for books, for abstract metaphysical learning that requires close analysis, or for those masses of facts and figures that are carried by the memory. I am sure that too much attention has been given by our school training to the mere anatomy of learning, to mental gymnastic and acrobatic feats that may mean nimbleness rather than strength of mind. Oftentimes the clever boy with a mind stuffed with all the fights historical from Marathon to Waterloo in order categorical, stands a mere paralytic in the presence of a fact; in the presence of something that has to be done. I remember that at college I swallowed, undigested, the huge bulk of Bloxham's Chemistry, yet never had a test tube in my hand, and was utterly incompetent to perform a single experiment to determine the presence of iron in a mineral spring.

On the other hand, I have seen a boy that would pass as

dull in the ordinary studies of the school display in the shop some of the finest qualities of mind—a sharp, discriminating perception, that is, the clear eye, for form, magnitude, proportion, and grace; a steady will; that is, the trained hand, that guided the keen edged tool to the breadth of a hair; a fine constructive power, that is, the will to do, that turned a lot of unrelated fragments of wood or metal into a thing of beauty and utility. Certainly these are high qualities worthy of all training and of all praise.

(2) “It has been clearly demonstrated that children who received both mental and manual training excelled in mental work those who received only mental training.” Today this is an educational dictum universally accepted; though a decade ago it was laughed to scorn.

(3) The introduction of shop work promotes a wholesome sense of the dignity of hand-labor, and completely emancipates from that false pride and snobbishness, unhappily at one time so prevalent in our section, that regards labor as a badge of social inferiority and a thing to be despised. One of the most hopeful signs of the times is to see a hundred or more Southern youths in shirt sleeves and blue overalls skilfully manipulating some complex machine and shaping up some finished product of their own skill and ingenuity. These young men are “not too fine for any form of labor, and are qualified to take useful places in the industrial world rather than swell the throng of useless and unhappy applicants in the overcrowded and underpaid positions in shops, stores, and counting houses, where a generally poor living may be obtained without soiling one’s fingers.”

Further, industrial education is to be heartily endorsed as a teaching subject for (1) the impulse communicated thereby to invention and discovery; (2) for the disclosure here and there of rare mechanical genius which, under the old system might have been hopelessly lost in a dreary wilderness of words; (3) for the value of the arts acquired in saving disrepair about the home, enabling the thousand needed strokes of the hammer to be well and promptly

given, securing the insertion of the nail in time that saves nine, the oiling of the discordant hinge, the hanging of a picture, or the repair of a lock; (4) and finally, for the virtue which a generous mechanical education of the people would have in preserving and exalting the priceless sense of social decency, which keeps the fence along the village street in order, the gate hung, the glass set, the shutter in place.

Perhaps nowhere more than in the desolate rural regions of the South is needed this sense of thrift and attention to the little practical details of farm life that make the difference between happiness and discontent, success and failure.

(4) And this brings us lastly and chiefly to "the advantages to be derived by the community at large from the improvement of the industrial quality of its citizens through the mechanical education of our youth and their acquisition and mastery of the elements which underlie all mechanic arts."

This is not the time to enter upon a general discussion of industrial education, but the words of an eminent English author are well worth pondering:

"Lord Brougham once said he hoped the day would come when every man in England would read Bacon; William Corbett said he would be contented if a time came when every man in England would eat bacon. First and foremost a man has to earn his living, and the light we want is the light to help us to work and find food and clothes and lodging for ourselves." The three R's, if no industrial training has gone along with them, are apt, as Miss Nightingale observes, to produce a fourth R—or Rascality.

"Every boy born into the world should be put in the way of maintaining himself in honest independence. No education that does not make this its first aim is worth anything at all. The being able to do something is of infinitely more value than the ability to answer questions.

Of old, the Hebrews, whose public and private economy

was of divine inspiration, required every boy to know a trade.

But the argument is entirely needless; the industrial hope of the South we all know is in a wider dissemination of scientific and manual education. A universal knowledge of the forces of mechanics, and of the great material resources that lie slumbering in the depths of our hills and fields and forests—this is the supreme need of the impoverished Southland of ours.

And not only at the top must we have this industrial skill, but diffused through every part of the common life. Not only do we need the expert captain of industry, the employer; but the workman as well, the man in the ranks, he too must have high intelligence and training that gives elasticity and alertness of mind, which brings adaptability and power to get command of all new methods, appliances and labor-saving devices. It is this power, says our American consul at Liverpool, that makes the American two or three times as efficient as the average British workman.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING IN RURAL SCHOOLS.

A broad and most inviting field for both elementary and industrial education lies in that back land of civilization lying beyond our cities, villages and fertile regions, along the ridges and hollows and caves of the great foothills of the Appalachian system, extending through the Southern States, the poor whites, the barrenites, the Crackers, as they are sometimes jeeringly called. By nature they are endowed with admirable qualities of heart and mind— independent, hospitable, courteous, virtuous, patriotic, all this I know them to be. But narrow, prejudiced, their horizon narrowed between the tops of their silent hills, they have all the sad limitations of centuries of ignorance. In the rough they have the making of splendid citizens, provided they be caught young and put to some sort of industrial training. In the State of Alabama there are 31,000 of these illiterate whites of voting age, 1,500 in one county and 1,000 in another. The situation stirs our consciences.

The men who afford the means and project the methods for reaching these stranded and belated people may justly be called patriots.

And throughout the entire system of rural schools there should be introduced the same principle of industrial and artistic training. Carving, as is practiced throughout Switzerland by the country folk, basket making, carpentry and many other forms of artistic handwork can be taught. And surely the principles of agriculture, floriculture, horticulture, all forms of nature study, habits of birds, beast and fish, botany, why plants grow and how plants grow, all these are of infinite interest and of almost infinite value. More of these and less of ancient history and cube root will, I think, put more cream into the churn and more beans into the bin and prevent the wholesale desertion of the farm for city life. Eighty-seven per cent. of the people in the South live in the rural regions, and 90 per cent. of the children complete their education in the elementary schools. Absolutely indispensable it is, then, if we are to accomplish a general uplift of the people, that our work begin in the elementary schools. Colleges of agriculture, experiment stations, bulletins, farmers' institutes will avail much, but the real work of regenerating our agriculture must begin with the children. Some excellent work in this line is now being done by the few agricultural schools existing in the States.

Truly, we need more of the methods of science in all our applications of labor. Common sense has been defined as the power to see the obvious; science, to see the power which is less obvious. Common sense we have in abundance, but how many farmers in any county are able to apply to their business the beneficial results of labor-saving machines or of recent discoveries in the practices of farm-life? Few, indeed, they be.

We have all read somewhat of the resources of the South; her genial clime, her sapphire skies, her gentle zephyrs, her stupendous mineral resources, her prodigious water-

power that goes idly to the sea, and her inexhaustible unrelatable possibilities, etc., etc.

Well, all this adulation and complacent hyperbole are of little reckoning.

There are two factors in the economic make-up of any community; the land and the man. And the latter is by far the preponderant power, be the former never so fair. Only consider the bleak shores and stubborn soil of New England. And yet, by the education of her children, by the establishment of schools, colleges and universities (the best to be had), by adoption of every form of mechanical contrivance and artistic improvement that make for increased productions (and that of the finest qualities), by alertness of mind, by refinement of taste, and by keenness of business sense, those same barren hills and inhospitable shores are today the home of manufacturing, the seat of culture, and the financial heart of the nation.

Knowledge, indeed is power, and the advent of better things for the South is happily prophesied by the interest manifested in educational matters concerning the great principles underlying commerce and industry.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGINEERING EDUCATION.

PROF. A. H. FORD, GEORGIA SCHOOL OF TECHNOLOGY
ATLANTA.

The definition of engineering as the science and art of utilizing the forces and materials of nature, impresses one with the wide range of subjects which engineering education must cover. First there is required a knowledge of the forces and materials of nature, and then the possession of the tools necessary to utilize them. Tools as used in this connection are not only material tools, as the lathe and transit, but also those mental tools required for the highest development of any industry.

A study of those engaged in engineering shows that they may be divided into two great classes, those who plan the work or the engineers, and those who execute it or the artisans. There is no rigid distinction between the two classes, for the same person may be in either class at various times, or in both at once, as the necessity or training may dictate. This paper will deal with the education of the first class or the engineer.

SELF EDUCATION.

Naturally the first engineers were self educated, getting their knowledge in the expensive school of experience. One work constructed showed by its failure where the next must have additional strength; but gave no indication as to what parts were stronger than necessary; so that the economical design could be worked out only by repeated trial. This process gave a mass of empirical knowledge which was the stock in trade of the old-time engineer. The transmission of this knowledge to succeeding workers resulted in the apprentice system.

APPRENTICE SYSTEM.

Under this system the young man who wishes to become an engineer enters into an agreement to work for a term of years under some competent engineer. This privilege is usually paid for, though the apprentice may receive a small wage toward the end of his term of service. He engages in whatever work may be in hand at the time, and thus learns the properties of materials and the methods of construction, together with a great mass of empirical data which will be of use to him when he starts out for himself. As natural science developed and its application to engineering work was appreciated, the employer frequently directed the apprentice in the study of science. This was an improvement over the purely empirical method, but was not very satisfactory from an educational standpoint: for the object was still to get work from the apprentice rather than to increase his future usefulness. Then, too, the scientific training was a mere incident with the employer and as such

was apt to be slighted. This was the condition at the beginning of the nineteenth century, if the military schools be left out of account.

ENGINEERING SCHOOL.

At this time the increased knowledge of scientific facts made a school a matter of necessity; for in the shop and office neither the time nor the means were available for the acquirement of the necessary fundamental scientific principles. This need was supplied for some time by the military schools. That they did their work well is attested to by the fact that from them came some of the foremost engineers in civil life at that time. The first school in an English-speaking country, to take up the teaching of engineering, was the Rensselaer Institute, established in 1824 at Troy, N. Y., as a school for teachers. As early as 1828 instruction was given in civil engineering and general science. In 1850 its name was changed to the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute and five years later a course in mechanical engineering was added. It has remained a small school, devoting its energies to civil engineering. This was followed by the establishment of the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, and an engineering corps at Union College, Schenectady, N. Y., in 1845.

The establishment of the Lawrence Scientific School as a part of Harvard University in the next year (1846) deserves more than a passing notice, for it shows the beginning of the controversy between the classical and scientific education, which even now crops out occasionally; though its field has changed from the college and university to the secondary school. In this department were taught chemistry, zoölogy and civil engineering. The idea then held, of what an engineering school should be, can be expressed in no better way than to quote the words of Pres. Edward Everett in reply to a question as to the form it should take. "Well, my idea would be that you, the professor of engineering should come to Cambridge and put up a sign as surveyor and receive young men into your office."

The school of engineering did not thrive in this classical atmosphere and the funds were applied to other scientific departments. Harvard thus lost a chance to become the foremost engineering school of the country, and though engineering courses are still offered, they have languished from want of attention until very recently. The Sheffield Scientific School at Yale, established 1847, has met the same fate from a similar cause.

Other engineering schools established at about this time were one at the University of Michigan, 1852, and the Worcester Polytechnic Institute, 1865, founded by John Boynton for the purpose of teaching those subjects not taught in the public schools which are required to train mechanics and farmers. This purpose was made the ruling idea by a gift in 1866 of a shop by Ichabod Washburn, accompanying which was this statement: "There shall be a machine shop of sufficient capacity to employ twenty or more apprentices with a suitable number of practical teachers and workmen in the shop to instruct such apprentices and provided with all the necessary steam power, engines, tools, apparatus, and machinery of the most improved models and styles in use, to carry on the business of such shop in all its parts as a practical working establishment."

LAND GRANT COLLEGES.

A great impetus was given to engineering education by the establishment of the "Land Grant" colleges, for the instruction in agriculture and mechanic arts, through the aid of the federal government. A bill making an appropriation of land for this purpose was introduced in Congress by J. S. Morrill in 1858, which, after passing both houses, was vetoed by President Buchanan on constitutional grounds. It was introduced again, and, after some modifications, was passed and signed by President Lincoln in July, 1862. The following are the provisions of the law:

(1) THE GRANT.

Each State now existing and each State coming into

the Union shall be entitled to as many times 30,000 acres of public land (not mineral bearing) as it had in 1860, or has, at the time of its admission, representatives in both houses of Congress. When there is not enough (or no) public land within a State, scrip shall be issued; but no State shall locate land in another State save through assignees, nor shall any portion of land be located smaller than a quarter section.

(2) THE OBJECT OF THE GRANT.

Ten per cent. or less of the entire gross proceeds of the grant may be used, if authorized by the legislature, in the purchase of land for sites or experimental farms. The interest of the entire remaining gross proceeds of the grant shall be used for the endowment, support and maintenance of at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific or classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts in such manner as the legislature of the States may prescribe, in order to promote the education of the industrial classes in their several pursuits and professions of life.

An annual report shall be made regarding the progress of each college, regarding improvements and experiments made, with their costs and results and such other matters, including State, industrial and economic statistics, as may be useful, one copy of which shall be transmitted by mail free to each and all other colleges of the same class, and one copy to the Secretary of the Interior.

(3) THE CONDITION ATTACHED TO THE GRANT.

The State legislature must formally accept the grant within three years, establish at least one school of the character set forth above within five years, must replace all losses to the fund, must invest the entire gross proceeds, after a permitted expenditure of not more than ten per cent. thereof for sites or experimental farms, in safe stocks yielding not less than five per cent. on their par value, must use

the interest wholly—excluding the purchase, erection, preservation or repair of any buildings—in support of the school or schools established by this act.

Most of the States in accepting this grant sold the scrip at once on an overstocked market, so that the price realized was in the neighborhood of about 60 cents per acre instead of \$1.25, which was the price at which the Government held public land. Others made the benefited school the assignee and realized more. The prices obtained ranged from 41 cents to \$6.73 per acre, with an average of \$1.65, making the gross proceeds about \$15,000,000.

A further grant was made the schools established under this act by the law of August 30, 1890, which provided for an annual appropriation of \$15,000 to each State, the amount increasing by \$1,000 each year until the annual appropriation shall amount to \$25,000. This appropriation is to be used exclusively for instruction in agriculture, mechanic arts, English, mathematics, physics and economics.

Since each State acted independently in the matter of establishing schools under this grant, they are of many types. Most of them represent little thought in their foundation and are suffering the consequences today. In some States agricultural and engineering schools were combined either as a part of some institution already in existence or as an independent school. In others they were separated even to the extent of having several agricultural schools; while frequently one or the other was added as a department to an existing institution. Where connected with another institution the status varied from a department ranking with other departments to one in name only, used merely as a means for obtaining the grant.

With regard to the method of teaching there is as much variation as in the organization; but all the engineering schools may be divided into two classes: (1) Those in which the practice is the central thought with just enough theory to make the reasons for the practice apparent.

(2) Those in which theory is the central thought with just enough practice to show the application. Without doubt the second class of schools are producing the better class of engineers, for practice may be obtained much better outside of the school, while if the fundamental scientific knowledge is not obtained in school the chances are that it will never be obtained; with the result that the engineer becomes a man of empirical formulas instead of a leader of thought along new lines. The institutions of the second class are in most cases those which are organized as parts of universities, in fact, not in name only. This is perfectly natural, for where the immediate commercial application, of what is learned, is the object of all those associated in a school, there is a tendency to hurry to the application before the fundamental principles have been mastered. In this connection the words of A. Riedler, who came to this country from Germany a few years ago, to study our engineering schools, are of especial significance. "It must be noted that most of the modern schools, which are undoubted technological schools, and have accomplished much as such, are founded as integral parts of universities." At present most of the engineering schools require a four years' course of study, of which the first two are devoted to general subjects, some purely cultural, but most being regarded as tools to be used in the study of the strictly professional subjects. The most important of those subjects which may be termed tools are mathematics, physics and chemistry. The requirements for entrance to and graduation from the engineering schools has been gradually increased until they are greater than for the schools of the so-called learned professions of law, medicine and theology.

The increased demands made upon engineers call for men of broader culture with a knowledge of history and economics as well as their specialty, so that the day is not far distant when a four years' college course will be required for entrance to the better engineering schools. With such a foundation as this would give, the student could enter

on his work in the class room, shop and laboratory prepared to do it in the most effective manner and on the completion of his course would be well equipped to take up the larger work of life.

DEPARTMENT OF CHILD STUDY.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

First Baptist Church — 3 p. m., Thursday, December 31.

The meeting was opened in due form.

Principal W. T. White, of Knoxville, read a paper on the Development of the Brain.

Prof. Edward F. Buckner, of the University of Alabama, read a short address on the Explanatory Principles of Mental Development.

The Present Status of Child Study was discussed in a paper by Miss Mary V. Hulse, of New Orleans.

First Baptist Church — 3 p. m., Friday, January 1.

Miss Anna Cummings, of Huntington, W. Va., made an address on The Formation of Ideals Among Children.

Miss Eveline A. Waldo read a paper on Race Expressions and Their Influence on Child Life.

A paper was read by Prof. Elmer E. Jones, of the State Normal School of Virginia, on The Early Relations of Children to Sense Impressions.

Miss Maud M. Shipe, of San Marcos, Texas, read a paper on Methods of Testing Fatigue.

Miss Mary Taylor, of Atlanta, here read a paper on the Study of Children.

The following officers were re-elected:

President—Prof. H. Elmer Bierly, Florida State College, Tallahassee, Fla.

Vice-President—Miss Clem Hampton, Gainesville, Fla.

Secretary—Miss Celestia S. Parrish, Georgia State Normal, Athens, Ga.

Resolutions of thanks were passed, thanking the President for his untiring efforts in the interest of the department.

The meetings were well attended and the discussions were lively.

The meeting adjourned.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE BRAIN.

W. T. WHITE, KNOXVILLE, TENN.

Educational reformers, some by theoretic deductions and others by experience or by intuition, have attempted to bring into clearer light a subjective order of the development of mentality. Froebel, Herbart and many others notably Stanley Hall in our own country, have made many valuable contributions which have stood tests of experience. But as yet, we have no general basis in positive science for such an order, and it would seem natural that the modern biological sciences, particularly neurology and experimental psychology, should make contributions to this problem. What follows will be an attempt to bring together some facts in these sciences as bear directly and indirectly upon the problem.

It was but natural in the early attempts to find a relation between the various structures of the nervous system and the different degrees of mentality observable in masses of individuals that attention should have first been turned upon the grosser forms of brain anatomy—the shape and protrubances of the skull, arrangements of the convolutions, the size and weight of the brain, etc. Each of these features has been subjected to scrutinizing comparative study. Practically nothing of psychological significance has thus far been obtained from any of these studies except to render it more doubtful that any significant relation exists between these gross differences, which naked

eye or scales may detect, and the differences of mentality in individuals. Large differences in weight, for example, are shown to depend chiefly upon variations in the amount of non-nervous material—the supporting tissues, blood vessels, fluids and the fatty protecting sheaths encasing nerve fibres. Recent investigation has been gravitating towards a solution in the finer microscopical structures of nervous tissues, while as yet the interpretation of facts in this field is more or less doubtful, nevertheless, certain features are suggestive to psychology and education.

As to the periods of brain growth as determined by weight, Vierordt, from records of 415 males and 424 females ranging to 25 years of age, finds that maturity in weight is practically complete at about the eighth or ninth year. The period of most rapid increase after birth, according to this investigation, is from birth to four years of age. Mies places the weight of brain of new born males at 340 grammes and of females at 330. At maturity he calculates the average as 1,400 grammes for males, and 1,050 for females. The period of most rapid growth is that of the first nine months of life, during which one-third of the whole increase after birth is added. The second third of the whole is added between the ninth month and the twenty-seventh month. The remaining third is slowly obtained. Mies says maturity of weight is reached sometime between twenty and thirty years. Pfister, in a study of 156 brains, from birth to the fourteenth year, confirms in a general way the rate of growth as found by Mies, and his figures would indicate that the maximum weight is practically reached in the pubertal years.

While the data, from incompleteness and questionable accuracy, will not allow us to determine with absolute precision when growth matures, we may, nevertheless, safely conclude that the rate, rapid in embryonic life and infancy, steadily decreases and that in all probability no large increment of weight is added after the ninth or tenth years.

The processes of diversion by which new cells are cre-

ated ceases in the embryonic period, as commonly stated, by the fifth month of foetal life. This has caused many to conclude that there was a limit to the possibilities of education. However, since the number of cells thus created reaches the billions, and there is evidence of what seems millions of undeveloped cells in the brains of men in their old age, it would appear that the present stock of possibilities are, by no means, exhausted. The nervous matter at any age shows what seems to be stages in growth of cell body, and along with the developed cells are to be found small cells, which neurologists have generally considered an undeveloped form awaiting structure or function, through education or impulse, or whatever else the inciting cause may be, to call them into active service. Kaiser took similar sections of the cervical region spinal cord in a new-born child, a boy of fifteen years and an adult. The number of developed cells in the new-born child was 104,270, in the youth 211,800, and in the adult 221,200. The number of cells which came into function during the first fifteen years of life was therefore double the number at birth. From this observation it would seem that even in the spinal system, the earliest to mature, growth of new powers is significantly active throughout, until the adult period at least. Vignal finds that the cells of the foetus are distinctly smaller than those of the child, and that they are more closely packed together. There is much indirect evidence for the conclusion that the cell bodies are increasing in size, though by such small increments as to elude obstruction by the methods employed throughout the greater portion of adult life. Ramon Y. Cajal has attempted to establish the principle that the size of the cell depends upon the number of its processes and collateral branches; that is, upon the number of other cells with which it is associated. Cajal has also offered the plausible theory that the growth energy which in early embryonic life is employed in cell division, passes when this process ceases into the work of forming the finer cell processes and collaterals, and continues operative until senescence sets in; i. e., to the number of others

with which it is functionally associated. There is also evidence to indicate that the cell changes in chemical constituency with age.

It is a speculation to which neurological theories point, that the fibres which connect the different parts of the cortex, one with the other, are most likely to be concerned in some way with association and the higher form of neuroses. As early as 1840 Remak made a study of those tangential fibres and concluded that no material growth of these fibres took place beyond the eighth or tenth years. Exner in 1881 and Tuzek later made some study of the problem, and Fuchs found from thirty-three brains, confining himself to a single area in the posterior central gyrus, that in the outer layer of the cortex some tangential fibres appeared as early as the fifth foetal month and later in the lower layers. He thought the fibres reached their maximal number and size in the seventh or eighth year. In 1892 Doctor Vulpius, of Heidelberg, through observation and experiment, reached the conclusion that the tangential fibres begin in the outer and inner layer about the fifth month, and in the middle layer about the ninth month; that this growth does not cease in childhood, and that as late as the seventeenth year the increase of tangential fibres is marked; in old age an apparent decrease in number takes place; the greatest number of tangential fibres is to be found in the central motor region; poor nutrition seems to inhibit the growth of tangential fibres. Kaes, in 1893, by a comparative examination somewhat similar to that of Vulpius, shows so conclusively that the development of fibres in the cortex, especially the tangential, is a process still in active progress as late as the thirty-ninth year. In a later study, Kaes comes to the conclusion that at forty years of age there is at least a partial arrest in the rapidity of growth of these fibres. The result of these studies seem sufficient to establish the fact that the finer nervous structures continue to grow until a late period of life, and further that there is some definite order in their progressive development.

The conclusion has now passed with general acceptance that when a new fibre acquires its fatty sheath, or becomes medullated, as is said, it is then functionally mature. No nervous function is ascribed to the sheath; it serves the same purpose, it is believed, that rubber covering serves for electric wires. It prevents wasteful radiation of the nerve current.

The significance of medullation, once established, becomes a key of great value in determining the order in which the various parts of the nervous system develop.

Flechsig found that the class of nerve fibres to first take on their medullary sheath are those connecting neighboring centres in the cord, and those concerned in receiving and discharging simple reflex reactions. This medullation begins in the latter half of the fifth foetal month.

Flechsig's most recent studies have attempted to trace the order of development of the various bundles of fibre in the brain proper. As to his researches upon the sheaf of sensory fibres, which originating (indirectly) in the spinal cord, conveys impressions through the internal capsule to the cortex, he finds that it is composed of three separate bundles, each maturing at a different period. The first bundle begins to mature just before birth. The largest portions of its fibre go directly upward and distribute themselves over the two central convolutions. This is a fact of extremely important significance in substantiation of the evolutionary principle. Of all localizations of the brain, that of these convolutions is most clearly established in detail. They represent the older fundamental parts of the organism—kinasthetic and tactical sensation of the arms, legs, trunk, and of bodily feeling generally.

In the first month after birth a second bundle of this sensory sheaf, appearing in the inner capsule from the lower levels, matures in the direction of the cortex. A large part of these fibres find their destination in the same area as those of the first, while another part turns inward and distributes themselves along nearly the whole length of the gyrus fornicatus on the mesial side. The third of

these sensory bundles does not mature until a very much later period, varying from one to several months after birth. One part goes directly to the foot of the third frontal convolution (the brain centre for speech).

The first of the special senses which centres in the cortex to mature, according to Flechsig, is that of smell, which, according to Endinger's studies, is the first centre to be evolved in the biological scale; the last to mature is that of hearing. The process of medullation of the fibres leading to and from the sense centres takes place rapidly, and by the end of the first month of human life all of them show some evidences of maturity. Up to this point Flechsig's anatomical contributions are accepted generally, and much that he has put forth on these lines has been corroborated by other neurologists. But in the matter of fibre connections of the cortex with lower nervous centres, he offers a revolutionizing contention in brain localization, and his claim is now under the fire of criticism and dispute. Heretofore it has been the accepted theory that the entire cortical area sent or received fibres to or from the lower centres. Flechsig, from his examination of infant brains, declares this is not true. Only about one-third of the cortical area at the end of the first month show these descending or ascending fibres. Then medullation begins to appear in the other areas, in the frontal portion, in the large posterior parietal area and in the Island of Reil, covering in all two-thirds of the human cortex. But, contrary to expectation, based upon the supposition of the previous methods of determination, these medullated fibres do not come or go from the lower brain centres. They give no evidence of a peripheral source or determination. They do not follow the course of the fibres developed in the first month of life. On the contrary, Flechsig contends that the source and determination of medullated fibres of these larger cortical areas are in the sense centres previously developed, those of sight, hearing, touch, smell and taste. Since they are of different anatomical connection and direction, the conclusion is necessary that they must have a function. Flechsig

leaves his anatomy at this point to offer the plausible speculation that these larger centres have for their function the association and the superior directive power of inhibitive interference upon the areas of sense impressions. Only one third of the human cortex, he states, stands in direct relation with the processes which bring sense impressions to consciousness and excite the muscles and mechanism of movement; two-thirds have directly with these nothing whatever to do. They have another—a higher function—the function of knowledge, of interpreting experience of the aesthetic sentiments, of the scientific decisions, of the moral judgments, etc.

Baldwin, in his *Mental Development in the Child and the Race*, presents what he styles the short cut theory by which development in individual man by ages of modification cuts across lots, thus escaping many needless bends and turns in the road evolution actually traveled. Unless we accept this modification, it would be impossible to explain many anomalies; for example, the fact which Gratiolet has pointed out that while in the embryonic development of the ape, the tempero sphenoidal convolutions (embracing the human auditory centre) appears first and the frontal convolutions last, in man the order is reversed. Man does not complete his fundamental development at birth. If we are to accept Flechsig's association areas as the centres of human reason, we find these parts anatomically far down the vertebrae scale.

From an objective study of human activity as illustrated by movements, the suggestion would be that these accessory structures are new duties added to old forces. Ross thinks we have indirect evidence of these accessory formations in the huge development of the pre-frontal lobes, which have pushed the posterior parts of the brain over the cerebellum, made the Rolandic fissure seem further back relatively and forced the posterior limb of the Sylvian fissure into a more horizontal position.

Flechsig's contributions of data go far to enrich and substantiate the theory of Ross by showing an evolution in

the order named. But Flechsig's facts deal wholly with infancy and must be taken merely as the beginning processes of development.

From the evidences of late growth of fibres shown by Kaes and Vulpius and of cell bodies by Hamarburg, there is justice in assuming that these processes continue until late in life under regulation by the principle which requires the more general and fundamental structures to develop before the accessory.

If indeed this be true, then it is clear that the historic pedagogical contention stated in the outset, that order of instruction should be regulated by the order of internal development of the mind rather than by the logical order of the subject matter, rests upon a substantial basis.

EXPLANATORY PRINCIPLES OF MENTAL DEVELOPMENT.

EDWARD FRANKLIN BUCHNER, UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA.

1. The integrity of child study awaits a satisfactory formulation of hypotheses which shall adequately interpret the phenomena which have been observed in mental development.

2. Historically, the earliest scientific conception of the mind definitely considered it as the product of a progressive growth. Compare Aristotle's idea of the nutritive, aesthetic, orectic and noetical souls, each preparing the way for the next higher stage. Men later lost the advantage of this comparative method of soul study, and for ages persisted in regarding the mind as a definite IT, thing-like in its character. The awakening came a century and a half ago through educational reforms, which have finally carried us into the "child-study" stage of investigation and educational revision. Comenius foreshadowed the later awakening. More particularly since the time of Rousseau have

the suggestions for explanatory principles been appearing with unusual fertility.

3. The next great step in child study or genetic psychology will be taken when we face critically the relative value of the explanatory hypotheses which have come in, especially during the later, inductive period of child study. We must go on in our study of particular phases of development; and we must not delude ourselves by saying that the facts are all in. But, in order to make the results of child study of practical value, we must unite them by that principle which has the greatest power of interpretation.

What I wish to offer for our consideration is a sort of inventory of the explanatory principles which represent our stock on hand.

4. The Genetic method first needs to be more carefully examined before we readily accept results obtained by a so-called application of the method.

How shall we—adults—get back into the rapidly evolving structure of the child's mind? The usual, the popular and the easiest mode of interpretation is what may be called the *logical standard*, derived, of course, from maturity. Loti's "Romance of a Child" well illustrates this traditional attitude; the boy is turned into "a little man," who is speedily conventionalized.

5. Until quite recently, most attention was given to exceptional children, or to unusual traits in childhood, resulting in epigenetic psychology. More recently a *pangenetic* conception has been entering the minds of observers, and the biological analogy is made to do almost exclusive service in explaining mental development.

6. Rousseau's cry, "Back to Nature," involved the two principles of *environment* and *nature*, giving him the occasion for multiplying paradoxes.

7. The theory of *original endowment* in the autogenetic sense colored the earlier observations, often creeping into Preyer's great work. The unsatisfactory nature of this theory was shown by its being replaced.

8. *Heredity and Instinct* represent phylogenetic princi-

ples which have given an altogether too individualistic application. What may definitely serve for explanation of particular phenomena is exalted into a universal principle.

9. *The Recapitulation Theory* is probably the most widely accepted attempt to explain the mode of mental development. This principle invalidates the experience of the individual, eliminates the effect of selection upon any genetic function, and carries us to almost absurd lengths in practical application.

10. *Environment and Suggestion*.—The contributions of the analytic work of psycho-physical science, and the great idea of Guyan, reduces the child to a simple reacting process, and does not allow for that modification of all reactions which actually does take place in the process of mental growth.

11. Baldwin's principle of *imitation and accommodation*, the circular process of motor discharge, simply gives a mode of habit—a system of "short-cuts," but makes great inroads on the culture epoch theory.

12. Tracy's *principle of transformation*, viz: that every mental phenomenon passes through a gradually ascending series of development, perhaps enables us best to see that the *factors* in development are relatively few in number, but the *modi operandi* are well nigh innumerable.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF CHILD STUDY.

MARY V. HULSE, NEW ORLEANS, LA.

In preparing this paper, the richness of our social inheritance has become more and more apparent to me. My obligations to those who have gathered for me the details upon which nearly everything that follows is based, are so numerous that I can only express them here in general terms, although I must mention Prof. Reigart, Dr. G. S. Hall, Prof. Earl Barnes, President G. W. A. Luckey, Prof.

Kirkpatrick, Miss Wiltse, Prof. Bierly and Mr. Irwin Shepard.

At the last meeting of the New Orleans Educational Association, December 14, Miss Emma Aitkins, president of the Association, opened a series of discussions upon child study. After a brief resume of the movement by Miss Marion Brown, Dr. Quitman F. Kohnke, president of the city board of health, addressed the Association upon "The Physical Development of the Child." By unanimous vote of all the members of the Association, with the endorsement of Superintendent Easton, it was decided to organize classes for child study, with a special committee to determine the lines of work for the ensuing year—to report duly to the Association.

The work is to be entirely voluntary on the part of the teachers, and while many are already deeply interested and doing good work, we hope to have its spirit permeate every school in the city in the coming year. The aim of the classes is to interest parents, teachers and others in the systematic observation of children and young people, with a view to giving greater insight into child nature and securing more sympathetic and scientific methods of training the young.

It is proposed to adopt as a motif for our work that the study is primarily for the good of the child, secondarily for the good of the teacher or parent, who is thereby enabled better to adjust herself to the requirements of the child's world; and only incidentally for the sake of the science. The best data are gathered as one of the offices of love, with a view to making the tender influences of home and of school more effective. Love and study in this field, as in that of natural science, instead of interfering will strengthen each other. Not only does this thinking love, which Pestalozzi plead for, make us better friends and teachers for both knowing and doing this work, but those who fail to utilize it are neglecting some of the most urgent new duties of a new age. Hundreds of men and women, parents

and teachers, have testified that they have learned things from it of vital importance to their children.

We who are in the midst of the movement can measure neither its magnitude nor its results. By it the last serf of civilization, the child, is being made free, and is taking his place in the scheme of the universe as a great, if not the greatest, factor of human progress. By it, and through him, man and woman are learning the true significance of life.

In undertaking this work it is well for us to remember that child study is but a part of the larger general movement of our time, which is trying to understand the phenomena of human nature by direct inductive study. It is indeed the latest flower of that Renaissance which stirred Europe to its centre in the sixteenth century. In the eighteenth century Rousseau rescued the contributions of Montaigne and Locke and gave them an abiding life. This quickened the impulse which Pestalozzi and Froebel strengthened and carried forward, and which is inspiring myriads of parents and teachers today, has done more to enlarge the educational ideal than was accomplished in all the Christian centuries which preceded ours. But the slow work of those earlier times was an unavoidable and an essential preparation, and even the splendid advance of today is only the first step in that long journey of progress which still lies ahead.

CRADLED IN EUROPE.

It is now a little more than twenty years since Dr. G. Stanley Hall began printing the outlines and pamphlets which started the systematic study of childhood in America. For ten years the progress was slow, but with the founding of Clark University young men were trained and sent out to important educational positions where they became leaders in child study work. The establishment of the Pedagogical Seminary and the summer courses of lectures at Clark University gave wide currency to child study ideas. State societies sprang up from South Carolina to California, the

most important one being in Illinois. In 1893, at the Columbian Exposition in Chicago, a national society was projected and a child study section formed. The feeling of interest was so wide-spread, that later at the Denver meeting of the National Educational Association there were present five thousand people for two days in the child study section. Those, however, who had been swept along by the excitement soon became weary and returned to their old modes of thought. The recent outlook is delineated by Prof. Earl Barnes thus: "The conditions actually prevailing in America today are full of hope for those who believe in the creation of a body of useful science based on the study of children.

The men and women who seriously identified themselves with the movement between 1880 and 1895 are still devoted to its service. The Pedagogical Seminary has steadily won its way until its files are indispensable in any well-appointed library; the *Journal of Childhood and Adolescence* has become a strong and helpful periodical; while studies of general interest find their way readily into the pages of the *Century* or *Popular Science Monthly*. From the bibliography published by Mr. Louis Wilson, I find that the movement is represented by over two thousand titles, by three magazines in this country exclusively devoted to it, and by several more which make it a department; by three journals in Germany; two in France; one each in England, Italy, Japan, Russia and Spain.

In the institutions of higher learning, where teachers' courses are given, we find lectures or demonstrations, or both, on child study. For instance: Dr. De Garmo writes that at Cornell the course given is one in genetic psychology extending through infancy and adolescence. At Columbia Dr. Thorndyke advises me that there are this winter about forty students in the course in Child Study, about twenty-five in an advanced course in genetic psychology, and eight or ten doing research work in this field.

The strictly laboratory work in psychology is all carried on in the laboratory under Professor Cattell's charge. Stu-

dents of Teachers College are admitted to laboratory courses there and thus have the advantage of what is probably the finest laboratory equipment in the country.

At Teachers College in the course in Child Study they do a good deal of work in the actual observation of children in school, and in the study of samples of their work, their drawings, compositions, records made in various tests of mental capacities and the like. Likewise in Chicago University, California, Washington, Iowa, Texas, Virginia, Tennessee, Georgia, Florida and Louisiana, each has a varying amount of work, and Child Study enters somewhat into the instruction of nearly every course of study that deals with the human mind.

The work of the Child Study Section of the National Educational Association has quite recovered from the popular reaction of several years ago. The program of the Boston department of Child Study is said to have been one of the best that any department of the National Educational Association has ever had and to deserve special praise. Its president, Professor Luckey, of Nebraska, took great pains in organizing the program. His selection of speakers was wise, and he resisted the strongly urged solicitation of fusing with the kindergarten section or with that of the high schools.

The meetings were marked by the attendance of perhaps the brightest and best of the younger element of all the meetings and the large church was crowded, even in all its galleries, and often all the standing room was taken by those who could not find seats. It was by far the best session that this section has ever held, and never has it been so apparent that here is to be found the leverage for the ultimate decision of most of the important questions of the future.

The severe criticism of a few years ago which frightened off the camp followers, did great good, and now the body of literature in every land, the many academic chairs, the new stand-points and lines of work have launched this great movement beyond all peradventure out into the open

sea of growth and prosperity. More than any other section, the character of the papers read here was sometimes scientific and based upon careful and sometimes elaborate research. The incoming president, Prof. E. A. Kirkpatrick, whose new book, "The Fundamentals of Child Study," comes so highly endorsed by leading educators, has the cordial wishes of all that he and his officers may maintain the integrity and prestige now secured.

It is interesting to note that as the result of the convincing demonstrations of Prof. Earl Barnes and Dr. G. Stanley Hall, ably aided by the other members of the Child Study department in Boston, July 9-1903, the following resolution presented by Dr. Colin A. Scott, was adopted:

Resolved, That in consideration of the scientific character of the material presented and the large attendance in the Department of Child Study, President Luckey be asked to nominate a committee to confer with the general officers of the general Association with the view of obtaining a sum of money for scientific Child Study investigation, including the publication of the results in a report for the benefit of this Association; the control of which is to be placed in the hands of a second committee selected specially for this purpose.

Professor Earl Barnes' work in the West complements that of Dr. Hall in the East in that the former works from a dominant interest in sociology and the latter more from a biological standpoint. Both, however, have based their conclusions upon such a vast number of individuals that none of their conclusions have been reversed. Prof. Barnes' magnificent influence is now extended eastward by his work in Chicago and Philadelphia.

Quoting from Prof. Barnes' address before the National Educational Association, Boston, 1903, in "A Study Based on the Children of a State," he gives the present outlook:

"At present Child Study workers are looking not for startling lines of investigation but for fruitful lines; not for great masses of data, but for just enough facts to settle conclusions. Not for glittering generalizations, but for true ones.

It is being steadily recognized that here, as in all branches of natural science, comparative studies must give us our most significant results. The definite studies we need are laborious and expensive, and for their successful prosecution we increasingly need the support of the city, state, and national departments of pedagogical investigation. If we could have in this country a central bureau of investigation which would do for the science of education, through the direct study of children what the Fish Commission has done for the study of fishes of America, it would strengthen the work of individual investigators everywhere. At present the national government is spending more money on the study of fishes and reindeer than on the study of children. Such quantitative studies will help to determine general laws of physical and moral growth and to diagnose educational conditions of particular communities, they will also throw a flood of light upon many social and political problems. For instance there is no other country in the world that furnishes such opportunities as our own for studying the children of different nationalities. Study recently made in New York kindergartens show how widely the children from southern Europe differ from those coming from the north."

Miss Lillie Williams, of Trenton, New Jersey State Normal School, in discussing Professor Barnes' paper, decided wisely that: "The idea of statistical study is now so 'in the air' that the future will find city, state, and national departments of pedagogical investigation ready to co-operate, if they are convinced that the questions to be investigated so laboriously and expensively are really fruitful. To make a mistake here is to imperil the cause which we desire to promote."

If Child Study is to be thoroughly and scientifically carried out it is of great importance to enlist the co-operation of observers in all parts of the world; for Child Study has its ethnical aspects and already valuable information has been obtained by the comparative examination of the rates of growth; of mental evolution, of the intellectual,

emotional and moral traits, peculiarities, and defects of children of the different races of mankind.

The truth is already established, but rarely recognized and never acted on that precocity, where not a symptom of disease, is a sign of a low type of organization. When by a number of series of accurate observations it is demonstrated that the children of savage, semi-savage, or inferior races, walk and talk sooner, and are at early ages more advanced in the display of their activities and faculties than children of the best European and American blood, then parents amongst ourselves will be less anxious for premature efflorescence in their children, less proud of their little prodigies, less discouraging to the supposed dullard who is slowly but surely building up that brain fabric which in the long run will prove strongest most enduring and best. As an example of this, it was found that in the answers in Kansas City to Dr. Hall's syllabi the colored children were more precocious than white children of the same age. To grasp the fact that in human, and indeed in all animal life, high evolution is late evolution and that as we ascend in the scale of being and civilization, the period of dependence of offspring on parents is gradually lengthened out — is to realize the significance and utility of Child Study. But let us look more closely at the Child Study movement from the practical side, for we must recognize the reasonable demand of the teacher that she be required to do nothing which is not practical. It is wise, therefore, to insist that she confine herself so far as Child Study is concerned, rigidly to such things as she can see are of immediate use to her and her present pupils. Fortunately for the overburdened teacher there are two kinds of Child Study, with two kinds of results, each supremely important, but each the special function of a different class of workers. The one aims at generalities which may be formulated on paper; truths which are generally valid anywhere. This may be called scientific Child Study and belongs to the scientist.

The other kind of Child Study begins and ends in the concrete. Our problems are living problems requiring living

solutions. Each one is presented in the shape of a living child, who we quickly find is the focus of endless subordinate problems, whose conditions are changing day by day. Our primary duty as teachers is to solve each of these child problems, to teach children — not studies, nor classes, nor averages, but individuals — every one of whom has a given capacity to think, to achieve, to love, to serve, powers to be exercised and strengthened and turned to good uses for self and society — that we may enable and inspire them to live broader, nobler, healthier lives. The former kind of Child Study — and this seems to have been the kind which most of the leaders of the movement, scientists, have in mind, may fairly be regarded as an additional line of effort related to, but not a necessary part of her duties. The latter kind of Child Study is evidently an integral, inseparable part of the teacher's work every day and hour; we may go even further and say that the teacher's real work consists in this and nothing else, if only she is really and consistently educating boys and girls and doing it with full intelligence. In the address by Supt. F. E. Spaulding, of Passaic, N. J., upon *The Teacher's Practical Application of the Results of Child Study*, he has pictured for us most vividly the method of direct study of children; given us an insight into the magnificent possibilities of the teacher's preparation and the difficulties he meets; because even though in the presence of the child, the phenomenon he would study is a subjective one and is shut off from him by diffidence, imitation, acquired expressions, or it may be lack of expression and all those baffling conditions that shut off one soul from another. But notwithstanding these barriers his eyes and ears are quickened to discern in the child before him processes similar to those he has read of as noted in children, processes of which otherwise he might have been inobservant.

Have you read and enjoyed that sketch of the importance and range of interests comprehended in the term "Child Study" as given by Dr. Spaulding in his book, "*The Education of the Individual Child*," and also in his Boston

address? In these words he describes the intelligent preparation of the teacher and the range of interests comprehended in the term "Child Study":

"You are familiar—

1. With Burk's masterly study of the laws of development from fundamental to accessory. You have heard and read:

2. Dr. Hall on Adolescence, the contents of children's minds, children's lives, the moral and religious training of the young, and many other subjects;

3. Have tried to appreciate the causes, effects, and dangers of fatigue as set forth by Mosso, Leuba and Thorndyke;

4. Dr. Burnham has opened your eyes in amazement at the range, peculiarities and differences in childish imaginations, and has quickened your sense of the importance of hygienic conditions;

5. Hancock and Hall have discovered for you some of the laws of development of motor ability and muscular control;

6. You know all that Barnes, Lukens and Baldwin have published concerning children's drawings;

7. Something of the development of power in the discrimination and naming of colors has been made known to you by Luckey and Tracy;

8. Drs. Johnson and Gulick have shown you, both in theory and practice, the educational value of plays and games;

9. The phenomena and laws of physical growth you know from the work of Bowditch, Boaz and Smedley;

10. James' study of the memory you have made your own;

11. Barnes, Leuba and Ellis have helped you to a sympathetic insight into the religious and theological ideas and emotions of children and youth;

12. Prof. Barnes has also shown you the child's attitude toward punishment;

13. You have studied children's language and vocabularies with Tracy, Lukens and Miss Williams;

14. You have read all the twenty odd studies on children's ambitions and ideals;

15. The recapitulation theory and nascent stages of development are perfectly familiar;

16. You know when instincts characteristic of different periods of growth tend to manifest themselves and how they should be managed;

17. You can name the books that will interest or ought to interest, the average child from year to year;

18. You know what percentage of defective eyes and ears you may confidently expect at different ages—in short, not one of the 2,054 good, poor and doubtful contributions listed in Wilson's bibliography is unknown to you;

You have absorbed and are well filled with the results of Child Study to date. What of all these are you going to apply to the pupils waiting or rather growing before you?

The little girl in front seat of front row: Is she in need of glasses? or an operation for removal of adenoid growth affecting her hearing? Will she read "Alice in Wonderland" with interest? Is the collecting mania just breaking out in her? Is she recapitulating the nomadic period? Is she fired with ambition to become a milliner? Is she terrified with theological concepts? Does she belong to the motor type? You don't know.

Are all the painsaking studies of various Child Study investigators of no value to you as a teacher?"

Professor Johnson, of the University School, Cleveland, Ohio, feels sure that the accumulated results of Child Study have even an off-hand value. Suppose "the little girl in the front seat of the first row" has just entered school at the age of five. You have read Warner and you can tell at a glance whether she is a very nervous or a very lymphatic child, and you plan accordingly. Perhaps she has abnormal nerve signs, as twitching of face muscles or of fingers, and you will be very careful as to the kind of work

and confinement you require of her that day. Perhaps you notice that she is poorly nourished, and even have reason to think that she did not have the breakfast she needs for her morning's work; and somehow the apple or the crackers you brought in your bag find their way to her hands at recess and you make a mental note to look into her case later. The time comes for writing. You find paper with fine guide-lines provided by the school committee. You have read Burk and Hancock and you send the little tots to the blackboard, or find them other paper. This girl in the front row perhaps has learned to write, but she writes very poorly. You watch her. You have read Krohn. You wonder if her eye have anything to do with it. A tactful note or a kindly call results in expert advice, and the little girl come to school with glasses shortly after, and in a few weeks she writes almost as well as the best.

Perhaps you have a boy in the front row, and he is a naughty boy. You have read Barnes and he has helped you to a better understanding and sounder sense in the matter of punishments. You know that children are not so easily shocked as your own tender-hearted self by the administration of discipline, and, proceeding accordingly, you win a boy and the admiration and respect of his classmates.

You would not be half as apt to think that the dull boy in the back seat might be hard of hearing if you had not read Sexton and Chrisman; but you have, and you bring him at once to a seat nearer to you to watch the effect. A little girl seemed to have a perpetual cold and to hear with difficulty; one glance was enough to give a suspicion of adenoids. A call on the parents resulted in her being taken to a physician.

How can you read Mosso, Lukens, Thorndyke and Burnham and not be quicker to perceive when fatigue sets in and to know, "off-hand," the value of open windows and a merry game? You have studied about the play of children and you know just what to do.

A set of test papers in arithmetic were examined. The

pupils were fifth grade boys. Only three or four boys got a good mark, and most of them failed. If they had been marked on the first half of the paper, nearly all of the boys would have passed, and most of them with good marks. Any teacher who had studied hygiene and fatigue would have known "off-hand" what was the matter.

So in the less tangible but broader results of Child Study lies the best that the movement has for us now or will have for us in the future. It is sometimes said that Child Study has placed the child in our midst. It would be true to say that Child Study has placed the teacher in the midst of the children to live both for and with them.

In determining the value of Child Study let us consider one representative point: Every one recognizes the importance of interest, how it quickens attention, short circuits slow processes, eases the strain of acquisition, and how the teacher who is well informed of the favorite (out-of-school) amusements and occupations of his pupils and on the life led by them and who knows his classes individually and collectively can shorten the road of learning. To determine and grasp these interests more fully than ever occurred to Herbart is one of the questions of Child Study. The goal is now near at hand which will involve considerable change both in regards to methods of teaching every subject in the curriculum and the age at which the different subject can be most profitably taught — in the determination of the nascent periods for both mental and muscular work. We shall have curves of the years when many of the chief culture interests begin to culminate and decline. This will enable us to say definitely which are the premature and which are the belated subjects, that is, when the matter of school training can be taught without forcing and without sinning away the sacred hour of maximal receptivity and capacity.

There is really no clue by which we can thread our way through all the mazes of culture and the distractions of human science — modern life — save by knowing the true nature and needs of childhood and adolescence. The civili-

zation, human institutions, and the schools are judged truly by the one criterion, viz., whether they have offended against these little ones or have helped to bring childhood and adolescence to an ever higher and completer maturity as generations pass by. Childhood is thus our pillar of cloud by day and fire by night, and may we not again hear the sweet words "Inasmuch as ye have done it to one of the least of these you have done it unto me" ?

THE FORMATION OF IDEALS AMONG CHILDREN.

MISS ANNA CUMMINGS, MARSHALL COLLEGE, W. VA.

(Abstract of Address.)

Confusion still exists in the minds of many, both as to the purpose and value of child study. We are often classed among those who at this present day are going up and down the earth, seeking an audience to whom they may unfold the merits of some pet fad.

In a recent article President Hall says: "In a period of change and of marked revival in educational interest, it is inevitable that the tares should grow with the wheat."

We are egotistical enough to hold that child study will turn out to be good wheat amid the tares of fads. We are not as indefinite as we may seem; we have in view certain very well-defined objects of a practical nature.

First, by the intelligent study of children we hope to learn how best to fit them for ordinary, every-day living. Few of our boys will ever become President; the case is hopeless with the girls. The majority will become common citizens who must be self-supporting.

Our business is to understand them so fully, during the formative years, that we shall be able to fit them into the place for which nature has designed them.

Second, it is our business to know children well enough to prepare them to become a part of the great social whole.

The time has gone by when a man can live by himself. We are inextricably woven together and the one who successfully studies the child must also be a student of sociology.

Again, only by means of child study can we properly understand that development is the first factor in education. As Dr. Starbuck says: "Education is not pouring in at the top."

Here the kindergarten helps us but, in turn, we also are needed by them.

To sum up: We hope by our researches to learn how to turn out from our schools normal children, wholesome, spontaneous, hearty, fitted for life.

It may be very pertinently asked, at this point, just how we expect to attain these results. What does our child study do for us teachers?

For one thing, it makes us look more carefully to the health of the child, to study into the question of his heredity, both blood and social.

It leads us to take into the account his environment as well as his delicate susceptibility to it. It helps us to wisely introduce into that environment the potent factors of religion and love.

Furthermore, child study ought to teach us, far better than we know now, how to adapt our work to all grades of children, the very bright, the very dull, and the commonplace. It teaches us how best to utilize the child's interests and fit our training into line with them.

The last point is perhaps most important. It brings us into sympathy with the child. In order to study and understand them we must become children ourselves once more.

We have not yet reached all of these objects but, in spite of those who misunderstand or undervalue us, we believe that we are definitely on the road toward their attainment.

RACE EXPRESSIONS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON CHILD LIFE.

EVELINE A. WALDO, NEW ORLEANS, LA.

De Brosses says of the value of studying what happens now in the light of its historical value that "we thus may trace man upward from the savage state to which the flood and dispersion has reduced them."

To accept this idea of progression upward from savagism to civilization is to accept the theory which is borne out in all the life of the child and, while it is not the purpose of this paper to discuss the value of the progression and retrogression theories, as to the rise of the race from savagism to civilization, or that savagism is a fallen state of nations previously civilized, still I would call your attention to the fact that the savagism so often spoken of as existing in the slums of our great cities is not in reality savagism as it existed in the race previous to civilization, but that it is rather a something which can be traced to a broken down civilization and that it represents mental, moral and physical conditions which are totally at variance with those of savage races. Savage races are devoted to gaining a subsistence from nature, while the child of the slums is devoted to preying on his neighbors, etc., so that, while those who favor the retrogression theory in the development of mankind may cite these cases as proof of the tendency of mankind to sink from civilization to savagery, still they must, if we study the race's development as a whole, be taken rather as a proof of the fact that when natural development is denied to childhood and youth a totally unnatural state arises which is at variance with all that should be expected when scope is given the child to live out properly the essentials in race development.

We must further recognize that almost invariably the children of the slums are so herded together and so deprived of all chance to live up to their natural instincts that they

are not at all typical of the race tendencies, but rather glaring examples of what we may expect if we deprive children of opportunities to objectify those things which appeal to their imagination and their feelings. "What a child plays it is trying to understand," says Froebel.

"One event is always the son of another and we must never forget the parentage," said the wise old Bechuana chief. Auguste Comte says that "no conception can be understood except through its history," and so in thinking over the things which influence the child development all of us put environment and inheritance at least on a par with education in their importance and while most of us believe that education carries with it the great open sesame to the whole possibilities of mankind still we feel that both environment and inheritance carry with them immense powers of modification.

It is my purpose to speak at length of only one branch of the latter subject. In thinking and talking of inheritance I divide it into five classes — Personal, Family, Caste, National and Racial.

Under personal inheritance I put all such accidental traits as may be peculiar to the mother or father or to one particular ancestor of the child, such as a mole on the cheek, moroseness or special brightness. Under family inheritance I put such traits, mental, moral or physical as predominate in certain families and are handed down from one generation to another, as for instance, a strong tendency towards literary pursuits, great mechanical ingenuity, inebriety, etc. Under cast inheritance I put such traits as come from a long line of ancestors who have occupied about the same social position. All of us will acknowledge that around kings there hangs an atmosphere of power — a tendency towards government that may be felt by all who come in contact with it, and, down through the social world, we must recognize the inheritance of caste, even though we be republican to the heart's core. Bohemia is Bohemia, and the upper crust is the upper crust, even though money may determine who is to wear the best gowns, smoke the best cigars, and

give the finest dinners. Generations of culture and opportunity, on the reverse, will leave an undeniable, irradicable stamp.

Under national inheritance I put such traits as stamp nations as a whole and which are handed down to prince and pauper alike. For instance, the French are essentially gay, the Irish emotional; the English lacking in a sense of humor; the Germans phlegmatic; the Russians morose.

Under racial inheritance I put all the inheritance which has made the race at large what it is — the tendency towards certain lines of action, the desire of doing, thinking, living certain experiences which are identical in all civilized nations.

It is of these racial inheritances and their influence on child life I am to speak this afternoon.

Froebel says: "Parents should view their child in his necessary obvious and living relations to the present, the past and the future development of humanity of the race."

Saint Simon has put the stages of growth in civilization as "Barbarism, Savagery, Patriarchalism, and Civilization, and he says that probably some stage will succeed civilization which will mark an era of co-operation. No one who has watched the development of the child will doubt that the child is born into this world a barbarian, utterly uncultured, dependent on nature, at the mercy of things outside of him, totally helpless. As he begins to study his world, he begins to reach forth to conquer it. At first it is snatch and grab, later on it is conquer and subdue, give and take — until finally out of this savagism there comes an intense family period when the patriarchal spirit is dominant and the household way and the household ideas seem the only ones worth having, worth thinking of. Later on there comes the spirit of reconciliation, the recognition that all things fit in with one another, that personal interests are subservient to family interests, and family to civil and civil to national, national to race, until, in the well developed adult, we find interests and beliefs have become generic and have ceased to be personal.

It is the tendency to relieve the life of the race that we can ascribe many of the outward manifestations of child life and it may be helpful to trace some of the most prominent of these race expressions.

We know that at first the race only imitated the shelters provided by nature in their buildings. Later on when they had begun to make implements for the slaying of wild animals we had the tenting age with its tents of skin; still later when the domestication of wild animals had turned man's attitude from predatory to protective and the inconvenience of wandering back and forth with their herds had made men domestic themselves, then and then only, the necessity and convenience of permanent buildings arose. So out of the domestication of wild animals grew the need of other than the nomadic life, then came the banding of families together for protection which gave rise to tribes; later the banding of tribes together gave rise to nations and so on until even in our day we see the banding of nations together for mutual advancement and protection. In the life of the child and the adult all this is clearly traceable. The little one has a tendency to wander away from home, gates have to be locked; later on it adopts some place in the garden and plays at keeping house, taking kindly to the shelters provided by nature. Then comes the tenting age when the child is still nomadic in its tendencies, but nearer to civilization and the tent is one of its greatest joys, be that tent made by the sail maker or only an old sheet or shawl stretched over chains or poles. Then comes the time when boy or girl if let alone builds, saws and hammers, at either a playhouse or at a shelter for some of its pets. Blessed is the child who at this stage has either a playhouse or some special part of the main house given it for its own. Later on comes the banding together of one school as opposed or friendly to another school, one neighborhood as opposed or friendly to another neighborhood, and so on through to adult life when the school or college spirit still hangs over all as a glorious, happy memory, and men and women band together in common cause for the betterment of home, society or country.

So much for the relieving by the individual of the modes of life of the race. As to details, who has not cooked over the primitive open fire around which stones or bricks have been put, and who, man or woman, will forget the joys of cooking one's own lunch on a real stove more or less Lilliputian in its dimensions. As to table manners at these feasts and when the child first begins to feed himself, how often did the old saying, "Fingers were made before forks" hold good, and how many a brother or visitor can look back to the shocking of the Daisys and Nans by the Toms and Demi's of their little world, even though subsequent banishment from polite society was not eventually mitigated through the thoughtful intervention of some good Professor Bhaer.

As to number and the counting of numbers, how clearly the child lives over the life of the race and reverts to the fingers and toes in its reckoning—and how clearly the primitive language's lack of words for higher numbers is shown in the child's vocabulary. I remember hearing a little boy of about two-and-a-half years who saw three things together count them by saying, "One, two, and another one." And Tyler tells of a deaf mute who wrote in the recollections of his childhood: "I knew numbers even before my instruction; my fingers had taught them to me." Thus we see that all children count by their fingers like savage nations do, and we must concede that the purely mental process is largely a matter of memory and analagous reasoning.

In music the child's choice of instruments clearly carries out the history of the race in this respect. First the rattle, then the drum, then the wind instrument, and later on the stringed.

I wonder how many can remember when the race instinct of tattooing dominated them. That tendency to stick pins into things and perforate patterns either on their arms or on paper. I can remember the great desire I had to make a pincushion of black velvet and outline a design on it with pins in imitation of a picture I had seen some-

where, and my own father, though brought up in the heart of Illinois and way inland, had on his arm tattooing of anchors which he had put there during the tattooing craze. Again, what child can resist water, and how many prohibitions are vainly issued against going into boats? As well try to turn the Mississippi backward in its course. Children must relieve the maritime age — that age which made the Norsemen famous, and that age which still held sway when Columbus gave the world a new continent. Children will sail boats, and later on they will venture out on the water in them.

Did you ever know a real well-regulated boy or girl who at a certain age did not love to sew and who in the absence of real needles did not play with one made of a thorn or sharp splinter of wood? I can remember how I went back to the primitive needle in my first efforts at sewing and how playing at house out in my grandfather's garden, I used an orange thorn for a needle. Sewing is one of the three primal racial arts and ranks with building for shelter and planting for food in its antiquity and importance in race development.

Then there is the much-talked-of and little cultivated mud-pie age, when the race experience of every man his own potter holds sway, and the sand pile age, when the most wonderful caves and mountains and river beds are made; and again, the gardening age, when man in his childhood begins to feel premonitions of the possibility of cultivating the soil and making nature yield to him fruits and flowers and grain as all men did before the herding together of men in cities, and when all men were tillers of the soil.

Again, there is the cave-dwelling age. I remember hearing one of our Tulane professors tell of a wonderful cave he and his companions had made in their boyhood and how its roof gave way and they were only rescued from suffocation by the timely intervention of some workmen in the neighborhood who had been watching them.

Who cannot picture to himself the delights of climbing to the top of a tree, and the consequent discovery of the

length and breadth of the view of the world thus obtained. Savages to this day keep watch in trees and climb to their uppermost branches to take notes of the surrounding country — and so it goes. The child demands to be given opportunity to relieve the race expressions and it is now our problem to see which are the necessary vital experiences and to find how in the grades, as in the kindergarten, they can be made educational in their outcome and yet free in their expression.

So I would urge all teachers to study the race and the child anthropologically and to do all in their power to make it possible for every child in every community to relive in a pure, good way all that has made the race what it is and will be for all time.

THE EARLY REACTIONS OF CHILDREN TO SENSE IMPRESSIONS.

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In every educational method the first essential is to know the child. Educational theory without scientific information concerning the child is as fruitless as the efforts of an engineer with no knowledge of his engine, or the weaver with no knowledge of his material or loom. Every successful system of education has been based upon a knowledge of child life and growth and development. Every failure has unconsciously thwarted the normal activities and impulses of children. The study of infancy and childhood and youth in a scientific manner, according to the latest physiological and psychological methods is absolutely essential to an accurate treatment of the question of education. Education can only be a science as its is based upon the truths of child study and research.

The phase of the question which I wish to treat deals with a period of child activity quite early in life. However,

I deem it none the less important to educators. If education begins at birth, as Froebel taught, then the greater part of the recent investigations of child life and activity has been begun too late to be of very much assistance in the early training of children. If it is true in life that one activity prepares the way for another, whether mental or physical, and that there seems to be a regular sequence of causes and effects from birth to death, then it seems quite necessary that the very first reactions, though they be reflex or even automatic, should be studied accurately.

At birth the child is the most plastic and helpless of creatures. He is largely a creature of undeveloped potentialities. His organization is not complete and a period of infancy or helplessness is the inevitable result. Any animal without this period is able to perform all its life activities at the time of its birth, and consequently cannot be educated. This period of infancy thus lies at the very foundation of the future training of the child. It is a period of adjustment, a period of trial and error, a fitting of the individual into the activities of life. It is a time when all this plastic material, nervous and muscular, is organized and co-ordinated and prepared for such reactions as will enable the child to live in the complex environment of social and industrial life. This period of infancy might be compared to the chrysalis period of many insects. Its physiological and psychological conditions are so different from either the youth or adult that it is readily seen to be a period separate and distinct. In fact it is only in the very lowest biological forms that infancy and youth are alike. As a rule animals mature late in life, in proportion to the complexity of their organization and functions. The higher the animal in the biological scale, the longer does it take to reach the full exercise of all its powers. "For centuries we have been in the habit of looking upon the child as a man in small, of looking upon a man as a child somewhat strengthened, with greater experience and versatility. So true has this observation been that society formulates its judgment accordingly, it prescribes its methods of education, and of social and

and domestic care accordingly. It sees almost no difference between the child and the adult. In point of fact, however, it would be hard to find many salient factors, beyond the most fundamental laws, in which the infant and adult exactly resemble each other. Multiply the physical proportions of the infant to those of the adult," says Oppenheim, "and you will have a being whose large head and dwarfed lower face, whose apex-like thorax, whose short arms and legs give a grotesque appearance indeed." This comparison is physiological, and if we make such a psychological comparison the difference is even more ridiculous. If we were to multiply the infantile consciousness to the intensity of the adult it would be about what we would expect of an oyster of equal weight. This child-consciousness is evolved slowly and in perfect harmony with the bodily reactions and physical developments. At birth it is practically nihil. He comes into the world a mass of potentialities and for months he is the most neutral of creatures, whose bodily functions are largely reflex and automatic, and whose mental calibre can scarce be taken into account. Compared with normal maturity, every piece of him is provisional, almost pathological. He is so plastic that his daily surroundings mould him as surely as a warm hand does a piece of wax. Every movement of mind and body are characterized by the clumsiness and uncertainty of an unprepared state. Moreover, the child is so easily influenced and the number of controlling forces about him so large, that unless there is a fixed and constant plan of action, designed to fashion him in a certain manner, his final condition will be settled by a combination of chance influences. This is just the thing to be avoided in all education. Right education, then, must begin with birth and must include in its moulding and adjusting influence the very earliest reactions of children to sense impressions. There is not only a place in our educational system for the kindergarten but also for the sub-kindergarten. This means that fathers and mothers are to be trained for parenthood. A man who without proper training attempts the conduct of a suit at law will bring down ridicule upon him-

self; he who without scientific medical instruction prescribes for the sick is punished by fine or imprisonment; even the most ordinary workman needs an acquaintance with the work to be performed before an employer will trust him. But for the right care of infants, no training of mothers, nurses or teachers is considered essential. "They usually consider the child properly nourished if he does not die, properly clad if he does not freeze, and properly taught if he is made to sit quietly in his seat in school." In the light of such thought we are far from having our system of education, particularly that part pertaining to children below six years of age, perfected. It will take some great reformer like Froebel or Pestalozzi, to wake us up to the necessity of child-training; to the necessity of careful and accurate guidance of the very earliest impulses of child life. Does it not seem strange that we have so long deemed it wise to arbitrarily fix upon six or seven years as the time when we shall begin to mould the child for citizenship and life? Certainly there is no physiological ground nor psychological ground for such action. It is purely arbitrary and not at all consistent with the best educational thought of this age. Education must begin at birth and continue throughout life.

Birth is the greatest cataclysm in human existence. The child's first acquaintance with life is a series of shocks. He is rudely exposed to heat and cold, and the gentlest handling of his nurse disturbs his whole being extraordinarily. The first breath of air, permeating as it does the remotest pulmonary vessels, produces a sensation to which nothing in life can be compared. Great impulsive waves flood the nervous system for the first time, due to external as well as internal stimulation. "The surging of the blood with new and extraordinary force through the capillary system is of itself a shock to his nervous system, while the first touches of his clothing must thrill his whole being with disagreeable and creepy sensations." All this conglomerate of lights and sounds and touches and internal sensations goes rushing rapidly through his nervous system, besieging

the brain centers and seeking an outlet as motor impulses, giving expression in the form of uncoördinated movements of body and limbs and arms, and possibly shrieks and yells. The child has reached a wholly new environment and is already vaguely expressing himself. His education has begun. These are his very first responses to sense impressions, simple indeed, and probably scarce accompanied with anything but the vaguest and dreamiest sort of consciousness; yet they are truly fundamental and have great educational value. We are impressed with the fact that an impulse is carried to the brain, a sense impression, vague though it may be, is made there, and that impulse then tends to go out to the muscles of the body in some sort of irregular movement. Since this appears to be a regular law from birth, we are justified in maintaining that primary education should be at least one-half muscular. It must consist in the child expressing himself. Education to the child thus means movement, muscular activity in response to a sense impression. As the sense impressions become clearer and more differentiated, movements are more exact and co-ordinated.

The reflexes of the child at birth are numerous, such as the pulsations of the heart, breathing, the secretions of the various glands of the body, and an instinctive tendency toward various uncoördinated movements of the limbs and body; these constitute the physical endowment of the child at birth. Is it not a significant fact that they are all movements of some sort? Is not this the physiological basis and the psychological basis upon which must rest all primary education? If we compare these simple original powers with the wonderful complexity of functions and activities of the cultivated human adult, we get a slight conception of the marvelous changes which must be wrought upon the child through various educative processes. If we are to be philosophic in these educative processes, we must study the line of least resistance. We must find out what course of procedure will best take this meagre amount of uncultured activity and transform it into the great complexity

of human adult dexterity, fitting the individual for the highest duties of citizenship and qualifying him to survive in the complex environment in which he is placed. Among the many factors which are employed in thus so marvelously changing the child these early impulsive actions bear a most important part. Every child has within itself a great number of instinctive impellent forces, sudden or transient impulses due to the highly energized yet unstable condition of its nervous structure. These instinctive movements and impulses are as much a part of child life as its heart-beat or breathing. It is true they are utterly uncoördinated, and meaningless to the unobservant, but undoubtedly these primitive activities form a reasonable groundwork for the future coördinated and graceful movements of the adult. These primitive movements enable the child to win the mastery over its own organs first, and then over external objects. "They include stretching and straining of the limbs, tasting, seizing and clawing; gnawing and scratching; exercising the voice and making other sounds; rending, pulling, tearing, tugging, lifting, and dropping objects, etc." All such movements are responses to an instinctive impulse to general activity — a display of surplus energy. They are of fundamental importance in the accomplishing of future tasks, for upon the proper coördination of them depends the muscular development and control of the body. Psychically these primitive movements promote the development of the perceptive faculties, such as space perception, color perception, judgment, will-power and memory. They give the child a mastery over himself and bring him into contact with many conditions of the external world, which are precedents in his experience without which he could not enter upon the more complex activities to follow.

This early process of training and guiding the childish impulses is nothing new. It is well known by every kindergarten and is the physiological and psychological basis of all the manual arts. Neither must it be looked upon as a mere theory. It rests firmly and securely upon the nervous structure of the child and his instinctive tendencies to

activity. The brain is a mass of nerve cells and fibres. Nerve cells generate nerve currents, when properly nourished with good blood, and these currents pass out to the muscles of the body, producing movement. These same cells are directly connected with the special organs of sense by nerve fibres, so that external stimuli easily cause an impulse to reach the cells of the brain, and they in turn send it on as a motor impulse to the muscles. Sights and sounds and touches are the chief external stimuli. The muscle thus becomes the visible index of the nerve current generated in its own brain center. If a child's arm moves it is an indication that currents of nerve force are passing to it from the brain. Every movement thus indicates the discharge of force from certain areas of nerve substance. Muscular movement always means brain or nervous activity. Is not this a sufficiently strong argument upon psychological grounds for manual and industrial training? "The time was when almost no credit was given to a student because he was strong or courageous, swift, brave or enduring. The student hero of those days was apt to be a young fellow of towering forehead from which the hair was carefully brushed backward and upwards to give the full effects of his remarkable phrenological developments. His cheeks were pale and his digestion bad. He was self-conscious, introspective, and indulged in moods as became a child of genius. He had yearnings and aspirations, and not infrequently mistook physical lassitude for intellectuality, or a severe attack of dyspepsia for a spiritual inspiration." Such specimens of manhood do not exist when hands are the ready servants of a quick and accurate mind. The world has no use for an individual save as he can do something to contribute to the general good of society.

As we have seen the infant has free and spontaneous movements which lack all coördination or control by the visual or auditory senses. His hands do not move toward objects placed within his field of vision, which shows that vision does not yet control movement. Yet this is the very first thing he learns to do. When the infant is three months

old spontaneous movements remain as a marked character in his life, but sight of a bright object may temporarily arrest them. This is the earliest indication of a brain faculty that may develop into the power of attention. Later follow coördinated movements, such as the transferring of one object from one hand to another, and there is frequent arrest of movement. At a year old many actions are well adapted to the sense impression received, and the child makes characteristic sounds at the sight of certain objects.

It thus appears that this early spontaneous action is the very foundation of the later voluntary and intelligent action, which become more and more controlled as sense impressions are multiplied and associated. It is perfectly clear too that the underlying educational principle in the kindergarten and sub-kindergarten is physiological and psychological and therefore deserves our professional thought and sympathy. There are just two ways of acting upon the brain of a child—by feeding it with good blood and by stimulating it through the organs of sense. Brains do not grow by feeding only; they must be impressed and stimulated from without. Spontaneity of movement is the result of brain activity and must not be inhibited; it must be guided and directed. The whole trend of this infant education should be to develop expression. Sense impressions and ideas should generate impulses that should be gently guided out into the manual arts and industries. The environment of the child should be guarded so closely that his free activities may not be curtailed for lack of healthful stimulation and that his life may be a perpetual expression of a rich and varied moral and intellectual activity.

Is it not high time that we as educators stop this wretched and unphilosophical pouring process? Development does not consist in filling up. Development can only come as brain centers are allowed to send their impulses out into the musculature, giving free expression to the varied intellectual processes of the child. Heathenish and untutored is the method of requiring a little child, whose buoyant spirit is perfectly irrepressible, to sit in a seat the livelong

day, and emphatically humiliate him for every physical expression of his inner being. Psychological research and child study investigation utterly condemn all such nonsense, and place the whole educational structure upon the expressional spontaneity of the child life. This spontaneity which is manifest at birth and increases with childhood and continues into adolescence. It is by such a method and such a method only that we can ever hope to reach the perfect and symmetrical development of the perfect and symmetrical human adult.

METHODS OF TESTING MENTAL FATIGUE.

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Among the many sins with which the modern teacher is charged, that of overworking the pupil finds a prominent place. It is said that school hours are too long, that too much home study is required, that subjects, ill-chosen, require too much mental energy; in short, that the whole system is demanding more vital energy than the pupil has to spare. Hence he is in a more or less constant state of fatigue. Now, if this is really true, if the children in our schools are overworked, it behooves us to rearrange our system of education in accordance with some plan which will not call for an expenditure of what should be their reserve forces.

In order to do this we shall need to know several things: (1) How much fatigue is produced by the ordinary school work; (2) the relative amount of fatigue produced by the different subjects; (3) the periods, if there are such, of the day when the pupil is more easily fatigued than at other times; (4) how long the strain of attention demanded by a recitation may be kept up without too great fatigue; (5) how much time is necessary for resting, that is, how frequent recesses should be and how long they should last; (6) what is the best manner of resting, whether play, inactivity, or change of work; (7) the relation between mental and phys-

ical fatigue; and (8) how great a degree of fatigue may be reached without harm.

The next question is, How are these various matters to be discovered? We cannot take the child's own statement for sufficient evidence. He may be so interested and eager that he does not recognize his condition at all until he has reached the point of exhaustion. He may, on the other hand, declare himself tired when he is not. The child who does not, from some disability or from lack of interest, put his whole mind into his work, but studies in a half-hearted, half-minded fashion, may simulate the usual conditions of fatigue, as indicated by great weariness and listlessness, slowness of accomplishment, and poor quality of work. Possibly, much of what is usually called fatigue is really this state of "bore" and not real fatigue. What is needed when this is so is a change in quality rather than quantity of work. We should be able to recognize this condition, and to provide for it by different treatment from that required for true fatigue. We need, then, some form of test which we can apply for the measurement of this ordinary class-room fatigue. It should not be so strange and unusual as to re-stimulate to activity or to require the use of powers which have not been used and which are not fatigued; but it should be sufficiently scientific to be accurate.

Although these conditions are not easily met in a test, some tests have been proposed and have been more or less generally accepted. In Germany, for instance, the results of the application of some forms of fatigue tests have been used in arranging the daily school program. Questions, however, have arisen as to the trustworthiness of these results, and investigations as to their validity have been undertaken. With the purpose of finding out the real value of several of these proposed tests, a series of experiments in the comparison of tests was made, in which more than one was used at a time. By this means it was hoped to discover, through agreement or disagreement of the various tests, which were really useful and which were not.

Tests of mental fatigue fall into two general classes.

The first supposes that it will be shown by decreased physical power, since the exertion is dependent to a certain extent upon the condition of the brain. The ergograph, dynamometer, reaction-time, and other similar tests are based upon this theory. The second supposes that fatigue will manifest itself in decreased ability to do mental work. In order to measure the mount of work accomplished, it is essential that the test work be of a kind which can be readily measured. Accordingly, various forms of combinations of figures, additions, multiplications, etc., dictation, memorizing nonsense-syllables, filling in words or letters left out of printed matter, counting the number of times a certain letter appears on a page, and other like things that have been used for tests. The comparison of tests we made included both varieties, using sometimes only one of a series, at other times using both.

These were made at intervals during three years. The subjects varied from time to time; they were, in several series of experiments, mature people—one university professor and students from the senior and graduate classes. The other experiments were made on school children.

For the first test we used the ergograph and reaction-time. The reactions required were for the recognition by sight of four-letter names of well known men. The subjects for this test were five university students and one professor. The tests were taken for five days between 8 and 9 o'clock in the morning before any mental work was done, and again between 12 and 1 o'clock, the subjects having worked steadily all morning.

It was supposed that fatigue would be shown by decreased power with the ergograph and lengthened reaction-time; also, that there would be a greater mean variation of reaction-time in the fatigued than in the fresh subject. But the experiments did not sustain this theory. Only six times out of twenty-seven did all the tests show the same thing at the same time; nor did any one, taken by itself, uniformly show fatigue at noon. In fact, they showed that, about as often as otherwise, the students were fresher

at noon than in the morning, although their feelings did not indicate this condition.

We then decided to test the same people under conditions when still greater fatigue was present, so we tried them at eight in the morning and again at five in the afternoon one day when they worked steadily all day except during the dinner hour. Fatigue was so evidently present that it seemed as if the tests must show it if they would show it at all. Again we found no indication of fatigue at 5 p. m. by any one test and no agreement between the tests made at the same time.

We now changed the character of the work; we still used one of the more physical tests, reaction-time, but added a series of tests requiring more intellectual work. This new series included four forms of test: (1) Reaction-time, (2) adding columns of figures, (3) writing the cubes of numbers up to 9, (4) memorizing nonsense syllables. First, the reaction-time of all the students was taken, then they were seated around a table with everything in readiness for the remaining tests. Two minutes time each was allowed for adding, for cubing, for memorizing nonsense syllables and for writing the syllables remembered. After each kind of work there was only time enough to change the papers on which the material for the several tests was printed. In computing the results we considered not only the amount of work done, but also its accuracy, it being supposed that fatigue would cause decrease in accuracy as well as in quantity of work.

The tests were taken at 8:30 a. m. and 5:30 p. m. each day for four days, during the regular term examinations of the university. At this time the students were working unusually hard, spending almost their whole time either in standing examinations or in reviewing them. Yet fatigue was not shown by the results of the tests. There was no agreement of all the tests, nor did any two of them show a decided agreement. Taken individually, the tests showed a slightly better condition late in the afternoon than early in the morning, notwithstanding the fact that the students

had been working steadily all day, and were, as shown both by their appearance and their statements, much fatigued.

A year later similar experiments were made upon seven people of about the same degree of mental advancement as the former subjects, though only one of them was the same. These tests were taken the week preceding, the week including and the week following the March examinations. A three days' rest from all school work preceded the last series of tests; there was thus little likelihood of the presence of fatigue from the examinations. The tests were taken at 8 a. m. and 5:30 p. m. each day. Again we found no agreement of tests and no regularity in indication of fatigue.

It was thought possible that the failure to indicate fatigue was due to the fact that the subjects were not really warmed up mentally so early as 8:30, so we made a series of tests at 10 a. m. and 5 p. m., but there was no appreciable difference in results.

Up to this time our experiments had been altogether upon adults. No two methods used at the same time had been found to agree in results, and each method seemed to be inaccurate, indicating often more fatigue at 8:30 or 10 o'clock in the morning than at 5:30 in the afternoon after a hard day's work. But since so many experimenters seemed to have confidence in the tests, we thought it possible that they might still be reliable with younger children, who had not cultivated their powers of attention and concentration so strongly as university seniors, and who were, therefore, not able to hide their fatigue as the university students seemed to do. In order to find out if this were the case, a series of experiments was made upon children from the sixth grade of the Austin public schools. The tests were taken at 9 in the morning, at the opening of the session, and at 3 in the afternoon, when school was dismissed. They were taken at the school building, with as little change from the usual conditions as possible. Owing to the difficulty of moving and setting up the apparatus, the reaction-time test was not used; but adding,

cubing, memorizing nonsense syllables and filling blanks in printed matter were employed. There were ten subjects, five boys and five girls, of average age and ability.

But here, as with the adults, there was no fatigue indicated by the tests in the afternoon. There was no greater agreement among the tests than in those made on the university students. Each test, taken separately, showed a slight tendency toward indicating a better condition in the afternoon than in the morning; this must have been wrong.

The experiments were made with the hearty co-operation of the principal of the school, and the children looked upon them as something rather pleasant than otherwise. They were not repeated often enough to grow irksome or monotonous, and were, therefore, enjoyed. This interest and eager anticipation seemed as efficacious in hiding or overcoming the effects of fatigue as were the trained will power and attention of the university students. So here, again, we were compelled to give up any belief in the reliability of these tests as means of discovering and measuring fatigue, even in children.

We finished the series of experiments with a few special ones made with the ergograph. These were made with the purpose of determining, if possible, why certain plausible results had followed the experimentation of others in this field.

Keller tested a boy of fourteen for several days, having him to read aloud either lists of words or figures as mental work between the tests. Besides a record of the ergographic experimentation, he also kept a record of the average time required for reading a word during the intervals between the tests. Although there was a marked falling off in the power shown by the ergograph as the day progressed, there was little difference in the average time required for calling a word, which was, in some instances, shorter in the afternoon than in the morning. Still Keller chose to consider the ergograph record alone as an indication of mental fatigue, although it would seem as if quite as much mental power would be needed for reading words as

for crooking one's finger automatically. The tests were often taken at intervals of not more than fifteen minutes, when local fatigue would surely have had some effect.

We made similar tests with a boy of the same age, who did not do any work, but lounged around the laboratory and amused himself between the tests. He, too, showed considerable variation of power during the day, decided decrease in power when the tests were close together, and gain after a long rest. But there was no mental work or mental fatigue to cause the decrease of power.

Another day we tested four boys with the ergograph according to the plan used by Smedley in his tests on the Chicago school children. He tested some children at intervals of about forty-five minutes during the day in school. We did not have them in school, but two of the boys worked arithmetic examples between the tests, while two did nothing. Both of the boys who did not work showed steady gain of power until 12:20, when both showed decided falling off. Of the boys who worked, one showed no falling off at all and was stronger at noon than when he started. The other improved until 11:30, and, though he showed a slight falling off at 12:20, he was still stronger than at the first two tests of the morning. After dinner all the boys showed a falling off. They had all lost their first interest in the tests and did not seem to try so hard to lift the weight as in the morning. It was growing time to play ball, too.

These experiments were made at intervals during three years, upon different subjects, and under conditions as favorable as possible—much more favorable, certainly, than could be secured in the average school room. They seem to prove that all of these proposed tests are entire failures as accurate tests of fatigue, hence, that we must base nothing on the results of all these recent studies of fatigue. Though the tests have failed as accurate measures of fatigue, they have shown us much as to what a complicated thing fatigue is. As it has given us a better insight into

the difficulties and limitations of the problem, the labor has not been in vain.

We may, finally, draw from these investigations a few observations which will be of value in the future study of fatigue.

First. The amount of work done in a short test is dependent upon the mental attitude of the subject toward the test at that particular time, even more than it is upon fatigue; and it is well-nigh impossible to keep this attitude constant, especially with little children. This is decidedly shown with the ergograph. If they like it, or get the notion that it is heroic to pull a long time, or that they are going to break a record, they work hard. If they decide that it is time to quit and play ball, or that it is about time they are to be tired, they pull half-heartedly, regardless of real fatigue.

Second. A renewed interest or a determined will may, for a brief period, hide the effects of very severe fatigue.

Third. The states commonly known as fatigue are not at all the simple, uniform things they are usually supposed to be; they have several component elements, and these varied elements enter in different proportions into different states of fatigue. Therefore, we need first to make a careful analysis to determine the composition of these states; then we can attempt to measure the effect of each of their elements. We will have to determine, for instance:

(1.) To what extent apparent fatigue is merely "bore," due to unconscious suggestion, purely physical.

(2.) To what extent the will may overcome and hide temporarily the effects of each kind of fatigue, and how long this will-effort can be sustained.

From this it may be seen that it is vain to hope for a single, simple test for fatigue, which the ordinary teacher can apply to his pupils as the nurse does the clinical thermometer. The problem is more complicated than we thought. It can be solved; but the first step in the solution is to recognize the futility of past methods of testing, and

to strive for a better analysis of fatigue and a more accurate, though possibly a less simple, test.

THE STUDY OF CHILDREN.

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If we are to take Prof. Froebel seriously in his assertion that he did not expect his philosophy to be thoroughly understood for 200 years, we have yet nearly 150 years in which to perfect the most intricate and essential study of the age—child study.

This thought should give encouragement to the teacher and emphasize the fact that “faith is the substance of things hoped for, the evidence of things not seen.”

If it be true that “childhood is the cradle of humanity,” then a thorough understanding of child nature is necessary in laying the foundation of character, and upon the teacher, more than upon any one else, rests the responsibility of building well and wisely this character structure, that shall help to make or mar the social system, of which every child will some day form an integral part.

In considering so intricate a subject as child study, three ideas at once enlist attention and call for most serious reflection;—the most essential qualifications of the teacher, the most effective method of developing the best that is in the child, and third, the results to be expected.

Child nature, like plant nature, is sensitive to extremes of heat and cold, and may wither and perish from neglect, or by receiving proper vitalizing force spring into luxuriant growth and become morally and mentally “a thing of beauty and a joy forever.”

I might seem to resort to mere platitudes, were it not of such vital import to the pupil, the teacher, and to the world to say that the most important requisite of the teacher should be honesty—an old, old word, but one that is as

differently understood and as variously defined as any word in the English language.

First, last and always it is to the teacher the motor power that removes the most threatening obstacles from her path, the subtle sesame that opens for her the broadest door to usefulness, and the unerring guide to success.

Honesty in preparation for her work, honesty in preserving every faculty in perfect condition for doing her very best in the work of each day, and, above all, in dealing honestly with each pupil, irrespective of that pupil's mental ability, social prestige or daily behavior as regards the teacher.

Wonderful are the possibilities of honesty in dealing with child nature, for a child, long before he is sufficiently educated to formulate his ideas into intelligent sentences, discerns the difference between truth and untruth. His nature is as pliant clay, and much to be pitied is the teacher who impresses thereon doubt and distrust rather than the unfailing image of honesty, upon which the child's mental vision may always rest in trust and confidence. But, if honesty be to the teacher a safety valve, ill-temper may well be called her Waterloo of defeat.

There is nothing connected with teaching that can be called easy—it is a most trying work from beginning to end, and one of its greatest difficulties, so far as the teacher is concerned, is for her to maintain at all times perfect serenity. But whether the temperature be frigid or torrid, through long days filled with the various and varied vexations peculiar to a teacher's work, she must first do that which is said to make one "greater than he who taketh a city"—control her temper, or, failing in this, she is apt to fail in everything else.

Ill-temper acts upon child nature as a biting frost does upon a delicate plant. And some one has graphically described in these words the effect upon a child of association with an ill-natured teacher: "A bit of dynamite, a meagre piece of gun cotton, a few drops of nitro-glycerine

may work incalculable ruin—a ruin out of all size and proportion to the size and bulk of the explosive used.”

Indeed, the most inconsiderable act done in ill temper by the teacher may unfold an evil potency that will change the whole life of the child and prove later a menace to society.

If honesty and good nature have been considered before tact, as necessary attributes for the teacher in dealing with child nature, it does not signify that tact is of minor importance, for this art of developing child nature has justly been called “the art of arts,” and in no other work is special preparation more essential. It is tact that leads a teacher to readily discern that the mind of every child cannot be developed by the same method, and it is tact that must find and apply the method best suited to each child. A certain way for this one, a different presentation for that one, light heartedness in dealing with one, a more serious expression for another; for sometimes a little more consideration for the peculiarities of a child means for him the difference between success and failure. “In every child there are undeveloped possibilities for good, but it needs a genius to bring it forth,” and genius is but another name for tact.

Let a teacher possess this discerning power, called tact, and she can perform the miracle of suppressing in child nature tendencies that might make the child as cruel as a barbarian, or she may encourage and aid in developing germs of virtue that will fit him to claim kinship with Divinity.

The most effectual method of developing the best that is in a child: In dealing with child nature, it were a sin of commission outweighing all sins of omission to subject the young mind to tasks that would stunt his creative activity to such an extent that, later, what should be a pliant mind, becomes too stolid to receive gladly, joyfully, instruction that should be an inspiration. It were cruel to keep any child kneeling so long before the idol, knowledge, that reverence for learning becomes a hateful, perfunctory duty toward which he must be driven as a slave to his task.

Learning should be made agreeable, for that method of instruction that serves to keep the pupil in a happy condition is the easiest, the quickest, the best, the surest method of instruction.

Recently, at a meeting called a mothers' conference, a woman was bewailing the dislike manifested by her two daughters for reading, although they came of a family called book-worms. She attributed her daughters' aversion for reading to the method employed in teaching literature in the high school of her city. This mother had been led to believe that among every class of people having any education, where English was read, that Scott's novels formed the favorite reading matter for the young people, and more especially had this seemed true as applied to children of the South. But, said she: "My copies of Scott's works could have the smallpox and my children be in no danger of infection, so persistently do they shun my library. They were required to study *Ivanhoe* in school, and they speak of it as a hateful, horrid old book, every copy of which ought to be burned."

"'Tis true, 'tis pity and pity 'tis, 'tis true."

Think of young girls finding no delight in the rough humor of Richard the Lion-Hearted; no quickening of the pulse in reading of the courage of the disinherited Knight, and failing to be a worshipper at the shrine of such beauty, gentleness and nobility as exemplified by Rebecca and Rowena. Why, a teacher whose methods impressed her pupils with such an aversion for such a book sinned most grievously. She took from them a possession almost as dear as their birthright; she had made it impossible for these young natures ever afterward in life to thrill with the delight of an enthusiast or derive the same rapture from what should have been to them a source of never ending pleasure. She committed a robbery which the law is powerless to punish and of which society takes no account.

But the superior method employed by another teacher was evidenced by another mother at that conference, who

stated that in the high school of her city, in another State, Ivanhoe had been so charmingly taught that in her home the favorite cat was called Wamba, the little sister's doll named Rowena, and the horses were called, the one Cedric, the other Ivanhoe.

One teacher had impressed her pupils with the idea that the road to knowledge was hedged with thorns and briers, while the other had opened to her pupils "a primrose path."

If the minds of adolescents can be so differently impressed by different methods, how perfect should be the method employed in teaching the impressionable child. "A little leaven leaveneth the whole lump," is a truism that should be daily recalled by every instructor of the young.

"Every child has a right to be understood," and it is a lack of such understanding that often leads a teacher to resort to that method of teaching called nagging. It is a method productive of nothing good and sows the first seeds of pessimism. Rather than resort to the nagging method, it were better for the teacher to be blind to many failings. That was a wise man who, when asked for the best rule for dealing with children, laconically replied: "Be a little deaf, a little dumb, and a little blind." To child nature, too vigilant an espionage stunts the spirit of growth. It has been said that every one, from a government official to the kitchen maid, resents being watched. Children are not only happier but better when allowed some scope for the untrammelled activity of that exuberant vitality that is a characteristic of every child of normal growth.

Let cheerfulness be showered upon a child, and let him be taught to believe that good nature is as praiseworthy as good lessons, and that a scowl or a frown is a disgrace, and the seeds of pessimism will die for the lack of a subject to feed upon.

Let us use that method of instruction that will arouse the signs of might in the weakest nature, and that will develop in the little child the desire to *do* great things and not dream them. The longer youthful enthusiasm can be made to last, the better the child, the readier the development and

the better the man. To paraphrase slightly, hope crushed to earth, *may rise* again, but each uprising is more feeble than the last, and each fall renders it more difficult to reach the heights. The child should be encouraged to discuss any celebrated subject suggested by his regular lessons, for the fullest instruction and the most helpful education is the result, not merely of reciting lessons, but of a free and easy discussion of the ideas suggested by the lesson. The mental faculties, as well as the bodily require exercise, and talking is a digestive process that prevents mental dyspepsia.

Every teacher might imitate with fortunate results Judge Joseph Story's method of teaching his law class. Judge Story's success as a teacher, says one of his pupils, lay "in communicating information, not in ascertaining the exact sum of his pupils' knowledge," for he believed that the teacher's time could be more profitably spent than by "putting the pupil on the rack." The recitation, if that could be called a recitation, where the teacher was questioned nearly as often as the pupil, was not confined to the text book, but everything that could throw light upon the subject under consideration was fully stated and impressed by apt illustrations. Often his illustrations were drawn from familiar incidents of the day, and the listless student, whose ear had been pricked by some interesting story, found that this was but the gilding of the pill, and that he had really swallowed a big dose of wisdom. Thus the teacher attracted the mind along instead of driving it, and only a dunce or a beatified intelligence could listen uninstructed to such a teacher." What an encomium from a pupil upon a teacher!

After all, by method, is meant not a certain fixed and unalterable way, but the use of that plan of instruction best suited to each individual, for some one has said that "Method, like fire, is a good slave, but a bad master, and too apt to degenerate, like other minor virtues, into mere priggishness." But having employed the best methods in training child nature, what results are to be expected? Pestalozzi understood child nature when he said "*the best* result will be obtained, the hardest heart will be touched, by

the miracle of love and kindness." The timid spirit, that untouched by this "miracle" would have fallen by the way, may reach the heights of a good and glorious fame, and "the mute inglorious" becomes a glorious Milton; some hesitating stammerer may develop into a Savanarola—the leader; some barefoot boy may, by proper training, give us another statesman of such strength of character that he would rather be known as one who did right than be President.

The result of a proper understanding of child nature and the use of the proper method of developing it, will fill the world with men and women who, "though they meet disappointments, will turn them, as the oyster does the sand which annoys him, into a pearl." From childhood's pure hopes, wishes and feelings we may, if we will, construct an ideal of humanity.

We, as teachers, may be such an inspiration, that to each child the word knowledge may mean, not a hated task, but the star of hope, toward which they will turn willingly, joyfully, reverently—a consummation devoutly to be wished.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL INSTRUCTION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

Assembly Hall—Piedmont Hotel, 3 p. m., Dec. 31, 1903.

The department was called to order in the assembly room of the Piedmont Hotel, Atlanta, at 3:30 p. m., President P. P. Claxton, of the University of Tennessee, in the chair. Upon motion of Hon. G. R. Glenn, Mr. M. M. Parks, of the Georgia Normal and Industrial College, was elected secretary.

Dr. Chas. E. Little, Professor of Latin in the University of Nashville: Peabody College for Teachers, read a paper on the subject, "An Educated Teaching Class."

Prof. Edward Franklin Buchner, of the Department of Philosophy and Education of the University of Alabama, was unable to be present on account of sickness in his family, and his article on "The Function of the Department of Education in Southern Universities" was handed to the secretary by President Claxton in order that it could be published in the proceedings of the Association.

President P. P. Claxton delivered an able address on the professional training of teachers, but, as the address was not written, the secretary is able to reproduce only a few of the many important statements and suggestions.

Prof. E. C. Branson, president of the Georgia State Normal School; Miss Celestia Parish, of the Georgia State Normal School; Mr. M. M. Parks, of the Georgia Normal School; Superintendent Phillips, of Birmingham, and several others, whose names were not obtained by the secretary, participated in the general discussion that followed.

Prof. T. J. Woofter, of the Chair of Pedagogy of the University, was elected president of the Normal Department for the next year; Dr. Charles E. Little, of the University of Nashville, was elected secretary, and Miss Agnes Morris, of the State Normal School, Natchitoches, La., vice-president.

President P. P. Claxton then declared the meeting adjourned.

M. M. PARKS, Secretary.

AN EDUCATED TEACHING CLASS.

CHAS. E. LITTLE, PH. D., PROFESSOR OF LATIN, UNIVERSITY OF
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE.

The everyday facts of our present condition in the things of education shall be my theme. This is what Professor Claxton meant by his invitation to me, this is what the occasion demands. I ask you to think with me over the question of an educated teaching class.

I. The facts of our present situation are pretty well known. A woful lack of trained teachers is the universal testimony. All speakers on this question continue to emphasize it, and my own recent investigations tend to confirm their views conclusively. Some counties, districts and communities here and there all over the South show a group of finely trained teachers from the various normal schools who have wonderfully improved local conditions; but the general average of teaching power is unfortunately in a sad plight. Some features of this lack will serve to make plain our needs and to mark out our line of future development.

In 1900 out of 9,396 certificates issued to teachers in Tennessee, 7,086 were of the third grade, and few of them had any technical training. Most of them had little more than a common school education. Statements recently received from all the States show that this is but a typical case for all the South. Chancellor Kirkland, in his Richmond address last April, notes the same situation. "What can be done," he asks, "to remedy this state of affairs. One view often expressed is that this matter will settle itself as soon as longer terms and better pay are provided. But the president of the Conference for Education in the South, in his annual address one year ago, asked this question: 'If millions of money were ready, where are the teachers?' This problem," Chancellor Kirkland concludes, "calls for more active efforts than hitherto have been put forth." With slight modifications, we may safely conclude that the general average is about 70 per cent. of teachers of the third grade, with not more than 40 per cent. of the mass of teachers possessed of any technical training. Now, the great mass of teachers must always have less demanded of them than of those who are to teach special branches in the secondary school or to supervise and lead. But without either technical training or general breadth of education their case calls for an immediate and thorough remedy.

Why this great deficiency in the training of our teachers? Merely because the demand for the trained teacher

cannot be met by the small supply. As much as has been done, every source of supply has ten applications for a teacher where one can be supplied. Those in the field are not employed because trained teachers are not wanted, but because trained teachers cannot be had.

Trained teachers are our first and greatest need. School houses, appliances, skilfully arranged programmes, rich curricula, even the money for all this list, including the teacher himself, depend absolutely on this first essential—the real teacher, adequately prepared for his work. Money and the outward essentials that money can procure are a prime need. It would be folly to deny this. But the central nervous system of all our schools is the vital teacher. Electrify him and the whole is ready with a response. Without this medium of transmission all our money avails little.

What is the great need in the training of teachers, along what lines should they be equipped, what are the spheres in which we need their services? Here we come face to face with the practical duty owed our people. The question of the teacher is also the question of civilization.

The great mass of the people must not be expected, for some time to come, at least, to need more than the education of the common or elementary school—the grammar school of eight grades. The great mass of teachers must accordingly be for the elementary school. What is the vital school for the people, and what is the vital teacher for that school? Specifications here are not easy, but indications and tendencies are abundant. We have faced this problem with its score of minor problems, and we have scarcely found a distinct outlook upon it, have scarcely made it emerge with sufficient definiteness to see where to attack it or how. But there is a general feeling of dissatisfaction with what we have, a longing for a change, a determination to have better conditions. We know that more life is needed in the schools, less abstract routine. The schools must somehow be made part of life, not an unreal thing in seclusion. They must be made just as real, just as actual,

as play on the recreation ground or work at home. The agency to effect this is the teacher, what the means? New subjects or new handling of old subjects? The answer has been sought in an enlargement of the course, by the introduction of nature study, of manual training, of domestic science—things that make for power as well as for knowledge. And whatever is to be the outcome of this experiment as to means, there can be no doubt that the intention in their use is an aim that will find an enduring place in our schools. We must either have these subjects or else acquire the power to handle the old subjects so as to produce more fruitful results. How is either to be accomplished without an adequate supply of well trained teachers?

The lack of trained teachers for the elementary school is even less than the lack of teachers fitted for the specialty of fine primary work—the first three or four grades of the elementary school—and for the specialty of kindergarten work. Here the mass of teachers required is just as great as for the higher elementary grades, the character of service far more delicate. We all have to pass through this stage, some in the home, some in the school. In the latter it is too often as haphazard as in the home; in both we find hardly any wise or skilful guidance. The possibilities are at this tender age greater, more far-reaching than at any other, but the means employed are too often crude and unintelligent. The need is pressing for a mighty army of specially prepared teachers to meet the child at the threshold and conduct him safely into the active life of his fellows and his time.

For the secondary school, also, and for positions as superintendents and as teachers in normal schools, the supply of competent men and women falls as far short of the demand. The evidence for the lack is as certain here as in the case of the others already cited.

II. If, then, the supply is wholly inadequate, how shall we increase it?

At present our teachers come from normal schools to the full extent of the supply. The others which we must

have come from colleges and universities, from high schools and even grammar schools. If distribution by sphere of service is considered, we find that the colleges and universities furnish most of the teachers for the secondary schools, most of the principals and superintendents; that the normal and technological schools furnish most of the primary and kindergarten workers and the specialists in nature study, manual training and domestic science. Those from the high school and elementary school have no place except in the mechanical routine of some elementary school, though many normal school graduates are now filling these places and eliminating both the dullness of routine and the incompetent teachers. Few of the college and university men have ever had any technical training for their work. When they face the problems of the school, it is in the school room with youth that will not wait. Dismay to the teacher, disaster to the children! The high school and elementary school graduates have had less training for teaching, with none of the compensation of a broad education. The state of this man is worse than the first. With so few in any of these spheres of service who are fitly trained for their work, we cannot wonder that we have but a pitiable handful made capable of studying our needs and of choosing the policy of our educational future.

Our sources of supply must be enlarged and multiplied. There is no other conclusion. The States must each establish, not merely one, but several normal schools. The course of study must not be too ambitious—something like a high school, on its untechnical side. For the specific work of training teachers there must be in these schools a somewhat thorough survey of the history and theory of education, and a full acquaintance with the practical, mechanical workings of the elementary school. Above all, there must be given an insight into the new things in education, into the aims embodied in them. Last, but not least, these schools must be made accessible at small cost, for the teacher can never hope to reap a great harvest of money.

An expensive education is out of the question for the elementary teacher.

The colleges and universities of the States will continue for a time to furnish much of the higher teaching and leadership, but even when equipped with departments of pedagogy, the colleges and universities make an unsatisfactory source. This is now admitted on all sides. The specialists in primary work must continue to be imported, unless some provision can be made for training them at home. Of course the State normal schools will give the fundamental things here, but I am speaking of the leaders and teachers of teachers. The problem of supply becomes simpler if we pledge the States to furnish the rank and file of elementary teachers, and see to it that the army is recruited to full effectiveness. The teachers of these teachers, the leaders as supervisors, principals and specialists will then form a separate problem. This need can be met only by a teachers' college for all the South. The States cannot assume this burden. A group of States cannot undertake it. Some independent agency pledged to the training of teachers must fit them for this large service to all the South. The only agency so pledged is the Peabody Board. To them we must look for the teachers' college.

This college, when put into operation, would be a most powerful source of energy and directive effort. Here could be trained our leaders and pioneers, our proposers of the right way, the next step, in progress; here our specialists in the very vital and practical things of science applied to the daily pursuits of human life, in the fundamentals of the arts and crafts by which our national greatness in a material way must be worked out. This teachers' college should stand for as broad culture as any of our present colleges and universities, its graduates should be as truly educated as theirs. But a plus of technical knowledge, of insight into school problems, should belong in addition to the graduate of the teachers' college. The specialist as teacher in crafts and sciences must have a wide survey of what his specialty contributes or aims to contribute to

social progress through the individual pupil. He must decide with the skill of wide knowledge whether crafts aim primarily to make the boy, the girl, a breadwinner, or whether certain processes primarily conduce to harmonious growth of hand and brain, or whether these are, after all, one and the same thing. The specialist, as leader of his fellows and as guide for the great body of teachers, must have as wide a survey of what all the branches of study contribute to social progress. In fact, he must choose what type of social progress it is desirable to achieve; must know, therefore, the sound reasons for retaining or rejecting this or that now in the schools, the sound reasons for introducing anything new. For this training the teachers' college is an indispensable necessity. General problems of education, too, need to be worked over afresh with every generation. The teachers' college should help us to decide the question of subjects and aims in the schools. The new subjects hold out hope to us. They seem fitted to develop keen power of observation, resourcefulness, adaptability. But by their introduction the course is overcrowded or some of the so-called staples must be dropped. Now, can the old subjects be rejuvenated so as to give this training in character—in keen power of observation, resourcefulness, adaptability? or must the overcrowding go on? or what must be dropped? These are some of the questions pressing for answer. Too few workers are investigating them. Our teachers' college would turn many investigators to this work. The problems of rural schools and local taxation call for careful investigation and wise solution. Lest a fitful campaign waged in their behalf soon blow over, as revivals from the outside are apt to do, there must be a permanent force constantly at work, studying their needs, experimenting and developing, wisely directing and leading. This eternal, unceasing service must be rendered by the teachers and educational leaders of the places most in need. Unless they do it, it will forever remain undone, except in ephemeral fashion. Let us see to it that each community has a teacher in place of an incompetent and every county

a score of sane leaders, thoroughly equipped for their work. This would give us a perennial campaign from within, springing out of the needs of the people and founded upon their own proposals, paid for out of their toil. An adequate number of thorough normal schools in all the States and a teachers' college for all the South are the only cure for most of our educational ills. President Dabney, at Richmond last April, in his report on the "Educational Needs of the South at Large," in his summary says: "The great need of the South, after all, is a great teachers' college which shall educate and train the men and women who are to be the leaders and directors in the Southern schools of the future."

I have said that the one agency consecrated to the training of teachers for all the South is the Peabody Board. To this agency we must look for help in our present crisis. A short survey of that Board's policy as originated and developed will show the reasonableness of our hope.

Mr. Peabody, in his famous letter of February 7th, 1867, made his first bequest of \$1,000,000 to sixteen gentlemen, in trust for the benefit of the people of the South. His only condition was relative to organization. His nearest friend, Mr. Winthrop, was to be chairman, and Governor Fish and Bishop McIlvaine vice-chairmen. The plans for administering the trust funds were yet to be formulated. How that was done is an important fact, now to be set forth.

On February 8th, 1867, Mr. Winthrop and nine others of the sixteen trustees met at Willard's Hotel, in Washington, and perfected the organization as directed by Mr. Peabody's letter of the day previous, with the title, The Trustees of the Peabody Education Fund. They drafted resolutions of appreciation to Mr. Peabody, appointed a committee of five on Inquiry and Investigation, and adjourned.

On March 14th, 1867, Dr. Barnes Sears wrote Mr. Winthrop a letter, called forth by a previous interview. This letter, Mr. Winthrop himself says, outlined with singular foresight the policy which the Board adopted and developed through the subsequent years. Five days later the Board

met and received the report of the committee on Inquiry and Investigation, Bishop McIlvaine, chairman. On the next day this report was adopted and Dr. Sears elected general agent. A comparison of Dr. Sears' letter of March 14th and the resolutions of March 20th show, even without Mr. Winthrop's express statement, that Dr. Sears furnished the "perfect chart of the course, as he became its perfect pilot." Here is the substance of the resolutions: (1) To devote special attention to the betterment of elementary schools. (2) As promotive of this end, to encourage and maintain normal schools.

Now Mr. Peabody, Mr. Winthrop and Dr. Sears were in constant consultation in all this formative period. In 1867, 1868, 1869, when Mr. Peabody was in America, he was always vitally interested in full discussions of plans for the work. In the last year he returned to London and died November 4th, after bequeathing another \$1,000,000 to the Board. The conjunction of these dates makes it absolutely certain that Mr. Peabody knew and stamped with his approval the policy adopted. Dr. Sears and Mr. Winthrop were sure that they were merely following a course which had the dying sanction of the great benefactor.

Dr. Sears began the development of these two cardinal declarations of faith, being succeeded by Dr. J. L. M. Curry in 1880; Mr. Winthrop continued to work with both of these till his death in 1894. In this development of their policy a constant growth is discernible. Four stages may be recognized: 1. Aid to public schools; 2, encouragement of normal schools; 3, development of higher professional training in one or more centers under the Board's control, and 4, the adequate endowment of one great teachers' college for all the South. The growth from one phase to the other has been gradual, but unfaltering, through the first three; the fourth is yet unaccomplished in the Board's programme. Dr. Sears distinctly recognized the growth of policy and the gradual transition. As soon as the States were freed from the evil effects of the war and reconstruction, systems of public schools were built and the States became responsible

for them. Dr. Sears' noble attitude on the Civil Rights Bill shows his general and constant attitude. In 1869 he writes to a New Orleans paper: "We have nothing to do with any party questions, or with the policy pursued by municipal or State authorities. We only wish to aid in the work of universal education." True to the conviction that permanent results must be sought, all appeals for individual need were disregarded. The fund could easily be frittered away in doling out gifts to every destitute community. The Board resolutely turned its back on all temporary expedients. In 1875 the Peabody College was founded at Nashville and has ever since remained the special object of regard on the part of the Board. By 1879 Dr. Sears could write that the Board had definitely made the transition from direct help for public schools to the promotion of the same end by working for an educated teaching class. The progress has been constant from that point to the present, when the Board finds itself confronted with the next logical step—the sure foundation of the teachers' college needed for all the South. The promotion of universal education and of an educated teaching class are not two endeavors, but one. They were and have ever continued to be the two poles of the Board's one sphere of activity. The creation of power for universal education, the embodiment of this power in the teacher's personality, is the one clew leading straight through the Board's whole history. Thirty-five years' trial and the great results in the Peabody territory show a return such as no other \$2,000,000 have ever been able to earn in a like period.

The picture of our need is not all gloom. The South is doing nobly in giving of her substance to education. State universities are being rapidly improved, especially in their care for the education of teachers. Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi and Texas are forging ahead with a fine outlook. Almost all the States have well supplied and efficient normal schools. No more hopeful sight is shown than this liberal giving of Southern dollars to the cause of Southern education. Indigenous schools, with the

flavor of the South about them, but with the crudity of provincialism wiped away, are our sure basis of hope. We have done much by imitation, we have gained infinitely by direct help and encouragement from other sections and countries. But in the end Southern toil and Southern sacrifices must build Southern schools, or else we must give up the claim to high manhood. Supine watching for help or direction from the outside will unnerve us for the real test of civilization. Let us welcome gladly and with all courtesy whatever may fall to us of kindly advice, encouragement, and means, but let us work eagerly ourselves and grow from within—the only growth that can withstand the shocks which assail every social organism.

The South is perhaps the largest area in the world with such a homogeneous and unified population—certainly among the highly civilized groups. Her ethnic, political, economic unity is remarkable. A teachers' college for all the South, imbued with her best ideals and spirit, is for this reason not an idle thought. It is a real possibility as well as a real need. Such a school will be free from the weaknesses of denominational control, free from the narrownesses and too specific genius of State and local coloring. On the other hand, teachers educated in the borders of the South will feel the problems they are to face and will grow in fervor to meet them, as they could not if trained for this higher service at the North. Cosmopolitanism is a fine thing, but is feeble, is flabby, unless grounded upon the positive virtue of local attachment. Mere cosmopolitanism is negative and leads to indifferentism. A cosmopolite is apt to be a lover of every country save his own. There is a provincialism in every ethnic unity worth preserving. It is by this character, this individuality, that it makes its contribution to civilization. We are glad Rome was not like Greece, nor New England like the South. The provincialism of New England is worth preserving, as it is preserved in Harvard and in Yale. The provincialism of the South is worth preserving, as it can be preserved in a teachers' college of the kind we need. This spirit would

spread through every channel of the teaching profession, pruned and purified in its transmission to a noble ideal of a whole people, and finds its place in the power for transforming a whole people when transfused into our teachers. And with such a school in the South much greater numbers would flock to it than now go to Chicago, Harvard, Columbia, great as those numbers are. At Columbia tuition is \$150.00 per year, board on the average \$30.00 per month. Half this sum is sufficient in the South, to say nothing of the shorter railroad mileage to reach a centrally located school.

We have the chance to save our educational system from top to bottom. With wise co-operation we can carry forward the work in all departments of need. Hand in hand the phases of development in the rural schools, in the State Normal schools, in the leadership and service of the teachers' college we need, can be made to advance, as hand in hand they must be made to advance, if we are to reach our right ful adjustment, our fit destiny in education marked out for us by the marvelous unity of the Peabody territory.

Golden opportunities lie before the South. We must wisely, sanely, hopefully choose the directest way of reaping them for her. Of all the many factors that enter into this fruition, that of an army of adequately trained teachers with capable leaders in the march of education is doubtless the most potent. The plea for an educated teaching class is not primarily for the teachers themselves. What we do for them is but a means to an end, the great end of transforming average childhood into staunch citizenship, citizenship powerful in the production of wealth, strong in capacity for civic and private virtue. Betterment of the elementary schools, permanent and constant progress in control of nature about us and soul within us, wait upon the vital teacher.

I thank you for this opportunity of presenting the matter of an educated teaching class and for your appreciative hearing of the message. This is my diagnosis of the situation and my inferences from it. The programme of remedy

is feasible, practicable, desirable. Something must be done, will be done, for amelioration. Whatever is done, we must not lose hope. Optimism will do much to remedy even a bad mistake. But we must strive our utmost to avoid that mistake. The time is ripe for concerted action. Harmony will produce a marvelous result. The opportunity is too propitious, the stake is too high, to allow mischance to mar or envy to destroy. If we choose the best thing rationally and act wisely, then well. If we choose the next best, then well also, but not so well.

THE FUNCTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN UNIVERSITIES.

EDWARD FRANKLIN BUCHNER, UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA.

The more I think of the topic set forth for our consideration at this time, the more am I impressed with the truth of the fact that it touches the pivotal point in our Southern life of today and tomorrow. My answer may be set forth prior to any discussion: to teach intensively and extensively the unity of life, the integrity of society, and the wholeness of education. That must be the actively prophetic office of every true department of education.

This easy generalization, however, can have but little wisdom in it unless it can be dessicated into the constituent variations which only serve to exemplify the wonderful scope of education. Not only is it true, but as never before men stand united in their belief in the truth, that education is the single constructive activity which is related to every aspect of human life. It is with some misgivings that I venture the attempt to show how any conception can generalize the obligations and the opportunities which lie at the hand of this departmental arm of the institutions pledged to maintain and increase the higher life in this quarter of the republic. A moment's analysis of the theme speedily convinces one that any adequate discussion of this

pivotal topic should be commensurate with the magnitude and the demand carried with it. I shall content myself with being analytic.

It is first, and at once, an historical question. For education, the inner unfolding of a people, can no more be broken in its development than the continuity of the majestic river in its onward sweep to the ocean. The education that is to be depends, not so much upon the education that has been, but rather upon the people's life. Two centuries of vigorous human history have been lived where these universities must do their work. These years of astute devotion to liberty and civic development must be reckoned with in any educational effort.

It is no less a sociological question. For education functions preëminently in social groups, rather than in individuals; and, in this region, the social groups of different kinds complicates the obligations and limitations of any function which may inhere in the department. The attrition between high and low races as we find it here must not be set at a minimum in counting educational duties. Population must always determine the education that is to be.

It is a political question. For the integrity of the state and of the later republic are alike interested in the welfare of intelligence and rational action as they emerge from ignorance and impulse.

It is a financial question. The cost of a thing is a practical test, and that is true education which any people gives to itself. No less is the teacher "worthy of his hire," and he ought to be worthy of a good place in which to teach.

It is an economic and an industrial question. Schools are definite factors in public economy. The welfare of the individual cannot practically be divorced from that of the community. And the output of education must result in giving a people that larger wealth, freedom of action, and those other rewards of labor which come with material prosperity.

It is no less a question of scholarship. For the teacher is the universal purveyor of knowledge, learning and prac-

tical intelligence; and the ripeness of civic humanity presents the attractive lustre of glowing truth.

It is a question that is both academic and practical in its character. Its solutions must appeal to those who man our universities. It demands a recognition of the work done in the higher institutions. The university student of education must no less be brought into adjustment, through knowledge and academic tact, with the combined forces found in school and in social education.

It is, finally, a professional question; namely, how to secure that training which will best fit a distinct group of laborers in the world's work; those whose devotion to truth in its genetic aspect lies as a drudge upon the public conscience.

The importance and timeliness of this topic is obviously apparent to every observer of the new educational development that is taking place about us. We are living in a time and place of great "educational desire," and, as another has said, the time is ripe, and men are now fit in the Southland, "for calm, philosophic thought and for academic view points." Many pressing problems in the Southern States have been settled, and happily, let us believe. But the question, what shall be the new spiritual civilization born of the quiet revolution now going on among us, has not been settled. The prophets of the hour are finding the key-word to the future in education. And, by education we must understand no less a meaning than the birth and perfection of a civilization through instruction.

On this occasion I will be pardoned if I leave to others to speak of the types and qualities of Southern universities. I could not presume to possess that ripe acquaintance with the foundation and development of these seats of learning which would entitle me even to a private opinion as to what the higher institutions in which we are laboring are and ought to be.

A university is primarily an educational institution, into which should be carried all the conservatism of true learning and all the enthusiasm of practical achievement. It is an

epitome of the intellectual and social life from which it sprang and which continues to nourish it. Being a growth, it necessarily is conservative. Being a prophet of the character of future generations, it is radical and progressive. It is also a unitary institution, giving compactness and completeness to the factors entering into its composition. It is a living encyclopedia, whose function is to be "all things to all men"—if such were possible. This unitary conception needs to be pressed home upon us as never before.

Sometimes the qualitative idea of a university is replaced by a quantitative idea. A century and a quarter ago this notion of magnitude as defining such an institution was even compressed into the most literal geographical limits. In France there was then conceived the magnificent "conception which embraced all educational interests of the state in one comprehensive view, and applied to the whole the name of *university*." A somewhat similar conception has established itself for more than a century in our own States of Georgia and New York. This meaning in terms of extent, however, it seems to me, does not approach the meaning in terms of value and service which our topic implies. Knowledge and its power have never yet been fixed into the limits made by natural barriers or the artificial boundaries laid by man.

The true university is that institution which makes all its departments enthusiastic in their recognition of the interrelations which bind them together. Other departments have functions somewhat analogous to that of the department of education. All alike must contribute to the make-up and efficiency of the institution as a unit. The most general function of any department is to represent its branch of scholarship, research and practical activity,—to stand for whatever that branch of knowledge stands for in human life. It must gather information and give it out to students in training. This is an obligation that falls to every department.

But one must discriminate between the functions of the several departments. Otherwise, success will not attend

their labors in the institution. While all branches represented should be coördinated in a university, yet all departments are not cognate. Here the department of education presents its first marked peculiarity,—it stands definitely related in detail to every other department in the university. Moreover, education is exceptional, because the university itself is an educational institute. To educate is its constant function. When, therefore, a university establishes a department of education, it is entering—as the Hegelians would say—upon the stage of self-realization. The institution has reached its self-consciousness, and can proceed reflectively to articulate its various factors and the lower stages of education into an organic unity.

If we glance a moment at the history of universities, we have a great deal of light thrown upon our topic, which essentially has to do with teacher training. The wonderful change in the evolution of the modern educational system appears when we examine the contrast between the meaning of the old-time “professor,” “doctor,” or “master,” and the academic “bachelor” of today. Our calendar word “commencement” is a survival of the early practice in the universities. Then the graduate was ready *to begin*, and actually did begin, *to teach*. Culture and teaching were synonymous, if not identical. The modern “bachelor” does almost anything but teach; and he is, perhaps, least often prepared to enter upon the work of instruction. The typical graduate of today feels no obligation to teach,—other than the obligation of his meagre purse. The historic function of the university has been to teach, and to supply the world with teachers. We should not overlook the fact that there were not elementary schools in those days as in these. It would seem, then, that one function of the department of education—in any university—is to reinstate the historic function of the university under terms of adaptation to existing school organization. What once was a generic function is now changed into a special privilege and obligation. This truth grows in force if we also recollect that the schools for the people grew out of the universities

and not the universities out of the common schools. This also teaches us that a department of education should invigorate the whole public school system. The difficulties which may lie in the path of discharging this function do not lessen in the least the force of the argument which has led us up to this conclusion.

Another point of considerable consequence is this: The function of the department of education follows the issues of education itself. This is the practical and quasi-political aspect of all education. In the republic of the United States it is a living doctrine that the State should educate. In England, the Established Church, under the recent educational bill, is just now seeming to declare that the function of all secular—as well as religious—education belongs to itself. In France, the state seems to be in ascendancy over the church through the political policy of closing the schools maintained by obnoxious religious orders. Among ourselves, then, the department of education has some fundamental problems settled for it by the persistent acceptance of the idea that education is an essential part of government. Where State universities, therefore, have departments of education, their function is already pretty well defined, but wonderfully limited by that curious attitude of mind so well expressed by one of our experts: "Everybody believes in education, but few believe in studying it." Although it is a *public* affair in its primary grades, education seems to have flourished best as a university subject in *private* institutions. Why should this be? In part because more means are available, and in part because teachers always form an attractable body of students; but, chiefly because the organizers have thoroughly believed in an intelligent and comprehensive study of education. I have in mind the distinctive work achieved by the Teachers' College now affiliated with Columbia university in New York city.

One function of the department of education most certainly is to make education a true and distinct subject of university study. Apart from its practical aspects, such a

study has value for its own sake. The very nature of education has great force in making this not only a possible function, but an absolute obligation. As a culture subject, education can never be given too high a rank. It contains within it interests for the race which are permanent in value. Amid all the diversities of statecraft and appeals to religious instincts, the recognition of the place and value of education continues to widen with steady continuity. It is an epitome of civilization and of man's development. For a broadening and liberalizing effect upon a student's mind no other study, excepting perchance the history of philosophy, is as useful as education. As a field for scientific and historical research, education is likewise fruitful, as is evidenced by numerous studies which have appeared during the last two decades.

We are thus led to affirm that the university study of education should be made from the historical and scientific points of view, rather than with the so-called "practical" *motif*. By this means, university training neither duplicates nor conflicts with the training given in the normal school. The university trained teacher should become possessed of a wider horizon of culture and a deeper knowledge of the coördinated parts in education than is possible to the student in normal training. While the university department should replace devices by principles of true methods, it dare not become a mere school of methods. The university, in discharging its double function of reasearch and instruction, must train its students in the mastery of methods—which often occurs unconsciously—as well as in the mastery of stock information. This mastery gives the key to the secret of unity in method, in which there should not be any violent breaks. The same student must be carried up through all the forms of schooling, and method must have unity in all its variations. This unity must be both genetic and logical. The severance of the school and the university in the general plan of educational organization has had evil effects in all directions. Hence, the baneful influence of primary methods in a university, and of univer-

sity methods in a kindergarten. The department of education will have achieved a great, important and necessary work when it has brought the extremes of education into intelligent harmony. The university trained teacher has an immense outlook with his equipment of knowledges and his training in adapting scientific methods to the study of nature, languages, history and man. Hereby he is already given a general theory of instruction. In sporadic instances, the educational common sense of the teacher brings this about; but the only sure way of securing this benefit in a generation of teachers is by infusing into the profession the leaven of thorough university training.

Education is the most compacting interest which moves modern society anywhere. This interest manifests itself in the organization of systems of education. The university department must necessarily elucidate the principles which control in the development and organization of schools as a system. These principles are frequently well demonstrated by studying the relations which obtain between the university and every other form of education. From his vantage point such a student becomes in a very practical sense the leader of educational organization. In Southern education, highest training and wisdom are necessary in order to scatter throughout the States individuals who, as master teachers and school organizers, can save extravagant public experience by a working knowledge of these principles.

Of the composition of the courses of study in the department of education, such as history and theory of education, psychology and ethics, school hygiene and laws, organization and supervision, management and discipline, and methods of teaching, I have said nothing. The problem of organizing such a department depends, first, on the educational intelligence put into it, and, secondly, on the means available. It has been suggested, however, that in university training some things are fundamental which find no room in normal training. Large omission has also been made of the relation of such a department to existing normal schools. Here the function in particular localities

varies. A few Southern States have no normal schools, others have many. That there remains, and probably always will remain, an organic differentiation between the university department of education and the normal school has been implied. Both forms of teacher training gain positively through this differentiation. I have also examined many statistics from the Southern States bearing on our topic, with which, however, I will not burden this paper. For, with these numbers one may juggle easily, without throwing much light upon the question. Nor have I detailed the economic and sociological investigations which the educational department must carry on or be aware of, although Southern life is centralizing itself in the perfection of industrial and technical skill.

That which has been kept foremost in mind is the fact that, for such a department, the teacher, after all, is the most important factor in the work of organized education. Whatever promotes his equipment and the clearness of his vision as a teacher fosters the discharge of the function of the department. The growing demand for thoroughly trained teachers is the condition which is bringing in the practical reason for the existence of the department. Its particular function is usually best described in the words which give answer to the question: Why was the department established at all in this or in that institution? The answer will vary according to local needs and problems. What I have tried to offer is a persistent regard for the general function of education itself as the best answer to the topic. If we resolutely strive to develop this underlying obligation, all particular functions will range themselves properly.

Three particular Southern problems are pressing upon the department of education—as well as upon all the other spiritual resources of the civilization: First, the need of greater concentration and organization; second, the issue of educating effectively a considerable body of rural people; third, the problem of maintaining a race equilibrium or adjustment upon a practicable and rational basis. The first of these problems can only be gradually and progres-

sively solved through educational leadership. On the other problems I wish to submit the intelligent answers of two observers of these issues. The second problem is only dawning upon those who are seriously taking a comprehensive view of fundamental facts. "The rural education of the Southern country," says Mr. R. C. Ogden, "demands an entirely new line of normal instruction, something that is absolutely different from that which has heretofore been provided by any normal training. The creation of teachers to carry on the work in the South is the thing to be done; for those teachers do not exist." The third problem, so peculiar and so persistent, cannot escape something of the solving function of a department of education. "I believe," says Dr. Alderman, "that any Southern university is doing more to lift up the colored race, through the broad-minded men it is training and sending into life, than nine-tenths of the schools for higher education of the negro, and if these universities had the means to set in operation academic forces to study and investigate and digest the great problem, instead of threshing out old straw, their power would be increased tenfold." One great demand laid upon the educational departments in that they shall work out and formulate the principles of what I may call race pedagogy—an unknown region in education, except for the acquaintanceship made therewith through the practical phases of life.

PRESIDENT P. P. CLAXTON'S ADDRESS.

[This address was not written, and only a few extracts are given from the notes of the secretary.]

As yet only a few teachers in the country and village schools have any real preparation for the important work of teaching. In addition to scholarship, each teacher should have a knowledge of the history of education, of psychology, of methods of instruction, and of the principles underlying education. We should not be content with little. We

must not be satisfied until we can send trained teachers to every school. In Massachusetts there are fourteen normal training schools; in Pennsylvania seventeen; in Wisconsin \$400,000 is spent annually for the training of teachers.

In Georgia the pay of the common school teachers is very small; the State of Tennessee pays annually \$146.00 per capita for the food of prisoners, and yet the average country teacher in Georgia is paid less than this—the average teacher must get board, clothing, books, etc., on less than is paid for the food of a prisoner in Tennessee. Under such conditions we have untrained teachers; we have the blind leading the blind. This is a waste of public money. Nearly \$400,000 is wasted in Tennessee because of unskilled teachers. We must get rid of the freshman teacher. When we have good teachers everything will be easy. . . .

The county superintendent ought to have as much training as the city superintendent.

It would be a great day if our college professors could make a real study of the subject of *education*, thus allowing them to take a broad view of education, and not indulging exclusively in their specialties. Right conceptions of education must be based upon a study of educational philosophy. Professors of pedagogy ought to be the leaders in organizing the courses of study in our colleges.

THE IDEAL NORMAL SCHOOL.

The ideal normal school should have an appropriation of not less than \$25,000 annually. It should not have more than two hundred students, and these should be as mature in age and as good in scholarship as possible. The members of the faculty should be men of scholarship and maturity, men who have studied deeply the principles of education, and each should receive a salary of not less than \$2,000 a year. These men should be in touch with the schools of the State and ready to aid in suggestions and supervision. Two of them at a time should go throughout the school districts, inspecting the schools and aiding with helpful suggestions.

Such a normal school should be located in a town where the expenses are not high—in a town of about four thousand people, where the public schools could be utilized in the normal work. Tennessee should have six such schools and Georgia eight.

E. C. Branson, president of the Georgia State Normal School, stated that there was a great demand in Georgia for trained teachers; that he was not able as president of the Normal School, to supply one in ten. Normally trained men are wanted in great numbers. Of the graduates of the Georgia State Normal School only one is now teaching in the city schools. We are fitting teachers for the actual needs of the country schools.

*TEACHERS' QUALIFICATIONS.

SUPT. D. R. MURPHEY, ANNISTON, ALA.

No question comes to those who have charge of schools which demands more careful consideration than the selection of teachers.

The teacher is the vital point in the school. Marble palaces may be erected for school buildings, all the apparatus, appliances and helps furnished that ingenuity may devise and skill construct, the most approved course of study mapped out, including all the adorning frills, and still a poor school result. On the other hand, with all these practically wanting, there may be and we may add there are schools lacking all but the walls, floor and roof, in which genuine teaching is being done and boys and girls

*DEPARTMENT SUPERINTENDENCE. Received too late to be entered in proper order.

are coming to maturity well-rounded, well trained to take their places in the world, to live happily and profitably therein, and to make it better for their having lived. The difference lies in the teacher.

Let me say, that I be not misunderstood, that I do not decry beautiful and artistic school buildings, well furnished and equipped. I believe in them, and know that they add to a good teacher's strength, but that they cannot replace a good teacher or convert a poor teacher's weakness into power. And it seems that the school officers have risen in their conception of the school and its purposes, and in their knowledge of what its influence, direct and indirect, does for the pupil, to the point where they are willing, in the face of certain charges of squandering the public funds, to construct the right sort of school buildings and properly equip them, surely should need no urging to exercise as great care as they have done in these matters in the selection of teachers.

There are sermons in stone, it is true, and the history of the earth's formation is written in its crust; but the average person hears not the sermons, and for centuries the earth lacked a reader of its story. Neither will the building of itself and the apparatus and all the school machinery that may be devised do the work of the teacher in developing the intellectual, moral and aesthetic powers of the soul. Their full value will only be realized for the pupil when vitality, force, power, is given them through a teacher of high purpose, genuine scholarship, thorough training for the work and enthusiastic devotion in it.

Some school boards think they have done enough when they go one step further than this and add a thoroughly competent superintendent, who is to plan and supervise the work done in the school, but is not consulted in the selection of the teachers. It is presumed that the superintendent has learning enough for all, has teaching and skill enough for all, pedagogical training and school interest and enthusiasm enough for all; that the half educated, untrained, teaching-for-pin-money daughters of their friends and acquaintances

can, by some "Alladdin's lamp" performance or "Open Sesame" utterance of the superintendent, be transformed into teachers capable of appreciating his plans, comprehending his instructions, and compassing his designs. He who makes a reality of the architect's conception must be able to read out of the plan what the architect has read into it; so the teacher must be able to interpret, to comprehend the plans and instructions of the superintendent and be possessed of skill sufficient to carry them out.

We are forced to the conclusion that the one important factor in the school is the teacher, and this demands a study of what qualifications should be sought and what relative importance should be attached thereto.

It will not be questioned by any one that the teacher can teach only what she knows, and it seems superfluous to make such a statement in a discussion of this sort, yet if school boards would but act on this truth there would be many vacancies requiring to be filled.

There is no truth that needs to be more fairly faced than that school results are meagre compared with the time spent in school by the child, and that the meagerness of results runs parallel with a meagerness of scholarship at the teacher's desk. There is a disposition met with at times to underestimate the importance of scholarship in securing satisfactory school results, due to the fact that a certain teacher, ranked high as a scholar, is much less successful than another of known inferior scholarship. The one making this argument merely proves his inability to reason logically. In drawing a conclusion every factor must be taken into consideration. It is true that of two teachers one may have much better scholarship in one or all school subjects and not teach the one subject or all or any one of them with the same degree of success as her less scholarly fellow. Are we to conclude from this that scholarship is detrimental to good teaching; that had the less scholarly teacher known less, had she known nothing at all of the school subjects, she would have been more successful still, or from it should we conclude that had the better scholar added to her qual-

ifications the pedagogical insight and skill of her fellow, or the less scholarly though more skillful teacher added to her qualifications the scholarship of the other, that in both cases infinitely better results would have been obtained?

This is the most potent argument brought to bear on school boards by friends of scholastically incompetent applicants, and one that too often wins for them a place on the teaching force, especially when there is added truthfully the plea that she needs the place. To withstand this plea school officers must be firm in the resolve not to admit any one to teach in the schools for which they are responsible who has not first the necessary scholarship to teach accurately the subjects in which she is to give instruction.

I know of nothing more stimulating to the pupil than the influence that arises from contact with a skillful teacher, otherwise fitted for the work, who in every lesson inspires the class with the feeling that she knows more of the subject than she is teaching; that her knowledge is not limited by the text-book in hand. She inspires the pupils with a desire to know that results in better prepared lessons, lessons which are inconceivably more educative, because they have been mastered from an impulse from within rather than from pressure brought to bear from without.

Education begins with life, becomes systematic under human guidance in the school, but continues through life. The education of the school seeks to build up interest in subjects that are of practical utility in life, or which are equally prized because they broaden the horizon, give perspective, and yield that culture which is the essential tone of high and noble living. These interests, unless education is to cease when the child leaves school, must be made permanent and of sufficient strength to send him into the world to be a student all his days, to the end that he grows every day in practical ability and culture. This will only be realized when the child's work in school has not been done under pressure brought to bear by parent or teacher, but which has been done in obedience to impulses

from within, inspired, kept alive and heightened by a scholarly and cultured teacher.

No teacher's services are valuable who can not win the confidence of her pupils, and no teacher can long keep the pupils blinded to the limitations of her scholarship, or the paucity of her fund of well articulated, accurate, ready knowledge. Weakness and ignorance, uncertainty and doubt betray themselves. The child loses faith in his teacher and will no longer willingly and gladly follow her in an effort to master the school subjects. If she is to secure the best effort of the pupil, she must feel it necessary to put forth her best effort. Why should the pupil know more of history and arithmetic and geography, and know that more better than his teacher? Will he have greater need for them in life than his teacher has, whose exclusive business it is to teach them? If my teacher can not work this problem without going home and consulting a key, or can't answer this question without looking it up in a book, why should I? If my teacher can not conduct the recitation without the book, why should I be able to recite without one? Thus reasons the pupil, and, right or wrong, he will never really study under the guidance of a teacher whose teaching does not show that she has the subject completely in hand.

There are hundreds of teachers today who daily go through the farce of conducting recitations, the subject matter of which they have never in any true sense comprehended; and their work, instead of being of value to the child, stunts his growth intellectually, and, what is still more dangerous, sends him out ignorant, convinced that he knows, with the belief that he is educated, when all that he has gotten is the shell of words which contain the kernel of knowledge, without the ability to crack the shell and obtain the kernel; nay, more, without a suspicion that a kernel lies concealed within and that the shell is not the kernel itself. He has mastered these forms just as the parrot his lesson, and with about the same insight. Certain

answers are associated with certain questions, but vary the form of the question and no answer is secured.

Now, in addition to having no education, such pupils are still more unfortunate in being blind to that fact. One having knowledge of his deficiencies may remove them, but how can he who is not aware that deficiencies exist. This sort of scholastic disqualification is the more dangerous for this very reason: the teacher has the form of knowledge without its essence, and is unaware of that fact, and as teacher so pupil.

The other sort is open to the eyes of the pupil, and at the worst he is not stimulated to effort by the inspiration of a teacher in whom he has no confidence, but also he is not stuffed with words under the delusion that he is being educated, and he devotes his time to the most educative work of contriving and executing mischievous plots, which test his ingenuity, call into play his mental powers, and prepare him infinitely better for the struggle of life.

The half educated teacher never teaches, because she has no conception of what true teaching is. She never rises above the conception that teaching consists in causing the pupil to store up knowledge, and, worse than this, she more often can not distinguish between knowing and its semblance.

Teaching in its true sense is acquisition of power—mental, moral, physical. The educated pupil has mental power and a disposition to use it aright. He has a mind with faculties sharpened to razor edge. He comprehends a situation, brings to problems with which life confronts him a mind, by training, equal to the task of solution, and, more than this, he is guided and controlled by high and worthy motives. Teaching deals with knowledge, but not as an end. It does not stop with knowledge, but with the ability to use it. He who has been trained to know merely, has been put in possession of a valuable instrument which he has not the ability to make serve his purpose. It requires more to make a dentist than a tooth-pulling outfit; more a surgeon than a case of instruments; more a lawyer than a

copy of the code. The educated man has trained faculties, a store of knowledge and ability to use that knowledge.

A teacher in an institute, who was discussing the teaching of percentage, asked a fellow teacher to give the first step in the solution of a stated problem. Said his fellow: "Tell me what case it comes under in Robinson's Practical Arithmetic, and I will tell you." Another teacher once in discussing the question of computing the areas of plane surfaces betrayed the fact that her work was purely mechanical and that she did not know the nature of the unit of measurement with which she was dealing. An auditor, to bring out that fact, asked at the conclusion: "You say feet by feet give square feet?" "Yes." "What will yards by yards give?" "Square yards." "Rods by rods?" "Square rods." "Eggs by eggs?" Why was not the answer square eggs? Here were teachers essaying to show teachers how to teach subjects they had never themselves really comprehended.

To test for comprehension of the principles underlying division of fractions, I once sent in an examination for teachers this problem: How many times are $\frac{1}{2}$ bu. of wheat contained in $\frac{7}{8}$ bu. of wheat? Explain fully each step. Among others, I got this: Invert $\frac{1}{2}$ bu. of wheat and you have two bu. of wheat, etc. It seems that with such abilities one might secure employment more remunerative than teaching. Such teaching qualifications are but slightly inferior to the preaching qualifications of him, who, in alluring himself emphatically on the side of opposition to the pleasures of sinful amusements, denounced without stint the game of marbles on the high Bible grounds that the Scriptures commanded "Marble not."

There are many essaying to teach and unfortunately securing positions who are more illy prepared from a standpoint of scholarship than these. They cannot solve problems in arithmetic or grammar, answer questions in geography or history without a key or without the book in hand. Not having mastered the principles underlying the several

subjects, they are slaves to aids and books, and the best they can do is to make slaves of their pupils.

Next in importance to knowing the subject is knowing how to teach it. Education has a comprehensive end, and each subject taught has a relation to that end. Each subject has a part to play, a purpose to serve, and these subjects, rightly taught, should bring about the comprehensive end of education.

In the work of education we are dealing with mind and character, seeking to develop the one and unfold the other through instruction and the instrumentality of discipline wherein the pupil is habituated to respond to high and worthy motives which are to control his actions in life.

There is a limit to possible mental development. What one may be is predetermined by the gifts which he brings into the world as a heritage from his parents, and we may add that these gifts never come to full maturity because the proper conditions of and stimuli to growth are more or less wanting or weak. The more nearly the right conditions are provided and the proper incentives are applied, the more nearly does the mind approach the limit predetermined from the first.

It seems that a proper consideration of these facts would result in a conviction that no one should be permitted to teach unless trained for the work.

As has been abundantly asserted by direct statement as well as by implication, teaching is more than instruction, however good that instruction may be. In order that the comprehensive end of education may be reached, there must be a unity of aim, design and plan. All the school work must be done with reference to this aim, which determines the spirit, method, motives appealed to, and balance in school exercises.

Effective instruction—instruction resulting in an intellectual mastery—might be given in each subject, and the sum of the result not be equivalent to education. The several parts of a machine must be fashioned with reference to each other and with reference to the plan and purpose of the

machine. There must be a balance of parts, a controlling unity of purpose, if these parts, when brought together, are to fit accurately and work properly. If these parts are not fashioned exactly with reference to each other and the machine as a whole, the machine will be worthless. Illustrations might be indefinitely multiplied, but enough. Just so the work of the school in the several subjects must be done under the guidance of the central purpose of education, if the result is to be educated pupils.

Some may be inclined to assert that this is an illustration that does not illustrate, an analogy that is not analogous; that the mind is not a machine, but a free spirit, and that instruction is not a mechanical process. The analogy is not complete, it is true, but it is true so far as it is complete. The machine with one part out of proportion is worthless. School instruction which lacks unity of purpose, balance of parts, may not be wholly worthless, yet it is decidedly defective; and it is not sufficient to plead that it is better than no instruction at all, for we can not tolerate the notion for a moment of a school that does less than furnish the best training possible for the child. His development is already limited, too narrowly limited, by the heritage transmitted him by his parents, and it is no less than a crime to the child and to society to still further limit his development by a failure to supply the conditions and incentives essential to a realization by the child of his possibilities to the full.

The school officers who are doing less than provide the fullest opportunities for the child to attain the highest degree of development, culture and usefulness to himself and to society, are neglecting their opportunities for good, recreant to duty, false to the trust imposed upon them. Never will they have fulfilled the obligations of the position they occupy until they secure the best trained teachers procurable for the work, teachers possessing the requisite scholarship, and by training qualified to so unify the educative forces of the school as to realize the aim of education.

Good teaching demands that each subject be taught with proper emphasis on its several parts. Not only must the unity of all subjects be preserved, but the lessons from day to day must grow out of each other and be bound together in one connected whole. A lesson or series of lessons must not be taught as separate entities, but their interdependence and connectedness must be preserved and accentuated, for only when such is the case will the pupil's knowledge be accurate, susceptible of assimilation and retention, and possess that organization which will place it at his disposal for use. Good teaching, therefore, demands that the subjects shall be properly correlated with each other and with life, and that the mutual relations of the several subjects and of the different parts of each subject shall be disclosed to the pupil's mind.

If we learn to know by interpreting the new by bringing to bear on it former acquisitions, the school must make use of the home life, extra school experience, and the fund of knowledge the child brings to school with him. But how can this be done unless the teacher has been taught the necessity for and trained in the use of such material for educational purposes.

It becomes still more apparent that a high degree of scholarship is required, for the teacher must see the beginning from the end. The relations of the parts of subjects to each other will not be perceived by the teacher who must plod along from day to day, barely keeping ahead of the class; and it is just this sort of scholarship that training for teaching should give. The teacher's attitude toward the subjects of study has changed, and she studies the whole range of school subjects from the view point of presenting them to the pupil in a way that will give him a unified body of knowledge which he can apply.

Training is necessary in order to so regulate the school work as to economize the effort of the pupil. The teacher must understand the process by which one comes to know, for the more strictly one follows the line of the knowing process, the less time and effort will be squandered by the

pupil, for he will be guided straight to the goal, without the waste of time and effort in a circuitous route. The teacher will realize at the beginning that it is not her effort, but the pupil's own, that gives power; and she will not make the mistake of attempting to do the pupil's work, or of making the pupil's work so light as not to call into full play his mental powers. She will realize that work, good, hard work, done by the pupil will educate him and that nothing short of this will. She will understand that her function is to superintend this work, to stimulate the pupil to work by bringing to bear the right sort of incentives and appealing to the right sort of motives; that as long as she can keep the pupils interested in the work and at work by using proper incentives, she can not set a task too difficult, and that the more difficult the task, the more educative will be the effort put forth in its accomplishment.

The teacher must be trained in order that she may be able to tell when her work is successful, to properly test for results. Dr. Rice has abundantly shown that superintendents, teachers, and parents may all be mistaken and pronounce very defective work good. Defects in teaching can be corrected only after discovery, and are seldom on the surface. Some defects are so apparent that any one can see them, but others require skill for discovery, and the less skillful in discovering defects that teacher may be the less likely is she to realize the importance of applying such tests. The trained teacher will at least have an objective, and her training will assuredly develop the scientific spirit sufficiently to require that she determine whether or not that objective has been reached.

The trained teacher will apply the right incentives and appeal to proper motives. Education implies character formation; and character is the source of action, and at the same time resultant of action. An act once performed gives more ability to perform it again, together with a disposition to do so, and sufficiently repeated passes over into habit.

It is not sufficient that a pupil conduct himself properly, and perform the intellectual tasks set him with exactness

and promptitude. It is more essential that these be done in response to right incentives and proper motives, for the motives from which he habitually acts in school life will be the motives that will determine his actions in life. If he deport himself properly in the home and at school because of restraints and punishments, when these restraints are removed it is not likely that his conduct will be regulated otherwise than by fear of civil law or the displeasure of society. On the other hand, if his school conduct is determined by his knowledge of his relations to the school and a sense of duty in view of these relations, he in life will act from the same worthy motives.

It is just so with respect to all duties of the school. It is not enough that a lesson be learned; the effort must be put forth in response to the right sort of appeal. A pupil is given a half holiday for getting his lesson well, and it gives him the notion that the school is a prison, and that the lesson is valuable in that its mastery purchases release from this prison. Another pupil is stimulated to study by inordinate praise and flattery and becomes egotistic, despises the ability of his fellows less fortunate in mental endowment, his whole thought is centered on himself and his preferment, and he goes out into the world to seek that preferment by fair means if possible, if not, by foul, to win the applause of his fellow men in a righteous cause, if that be the most popular. The sense of duty to himself and society will never determine his actions. Others are stimulated to study by the allurements of prize winning, medals, and for any other reason than that through the work they are growing toward the ideal man and are fitting themselves to be useful men and women.

The trained teacher will despise such artificial incentives and her appeals will be to motives the response to which will result in a character always true to the highest interests of self, country, and humanity.

A third consideration is the teacher's personality. She should be personally attractive to the pupils, should draw them to her, win their confidence and love. The pupil

feeling that the teacher is sympathetic will respond with love and devotion, especially so in lower grades. Her tasks are light and gladly performed because the pupil feels that they were set in a kind spirit of sympathy and love. In her actions she betrays just such a character as the pupil should develop, and works from just such motives as should control him. There is added to the conscientious, systematic effort of the teacher to build up a habit of response to high motive, the silent, potent influence of a teacher of attractive personality, of genuine sympathy. The example of the teacher who has won the love and confidence of the pupil is of inestimable value in giving vitalizing force to the appeal of that teacher. The teacher's personality should be the meeting point of those spiritual forces, those traits of character, those virtues necessary to make alive the dead letter of moral instruction.

Her habits should be such as are worthy to be copied by the pupil—neat and clean in person and dress, systematic, regular, punctual in all her work. The teacher who does her work, especially her written and blackboard work, neatly, attractively and accurately will have little difficulty in training pupils to do theirs in the same way; but if she does not, it is hardly possible to prevent them from falling into habits of slovenliness.

This watchfulness to bring only such influences to bear on her pupils will more likely be found in one thoroughly in love with her work, one who possesses the teaching spirit and is enthusiastic and earnest in her calling. The time-server seeks to hold the place merely in order to draw the salary, and her devotion to the work is measured by her estimate of the effort necessary to hold the place, or, at best, the motive force controlling her is the desire to rank above her fellows, and proceeds from vanity, selfishness or some such unworthy motive. The best work must always be done under high and noble incentives and must be actuated by a real love for the work and a sincere desire to be useful therein.

This love for the work bespeaks a heart that opens the

door and admits the teacher into the child's inner life. The child must be loved to be understood. Love of the work means nothing less than love of the child, for what is love of the work but joy at seeing under one's guidance the life of the child growing into usefulness, and the character flowering into virtues? The result of this love is ability to be companionable with childhood, to give insight into child life, ability to feel its joys, to share its sorrows, and intuitively to bring to bear the right influences at the right time.

The professional spirit means that the teacher is to be a student of her work. Under its control the teacher is daily growing in power and usefulness. She is not content with her scholastic attainments; she is not satisfied with her measure of success; she does not fold her hands in the satisfaction that she has attained the heights and that beyond all is dead-level, and so sit down to a contemplation of her achievements, making future growth impossible; but, as she looks in vision to the future, she beholds herself climbing ever higher and higher, ever becoming more and more useful. Such a teacher goes to the class room with the lessons so prepared as to make the text-book useless. She is continually broadening and deepening her scholarship, carefully scrutinizing the work of each day, searching out the failures and the causes therefor, noting the successes and how they were attained. This is the sort of teacher that grows every day, because she is getting the sort of experience that has lessons. Some teachers never improve, their experience is worthless, today is as yesterday, and so will be the morrow. Experience to be worth anything must be carefully studied that errors may be sifted out and what is good retained.

The question of teachers' qualifications has not received the attention it merits at the hands of those charged with selecting teachers. In fact, the proper qualifications have been sadly disregarded. It seems that the selection of teachers demands the same calm, careful consideration that the business man gives his business. Yet we find successful

business men on school boards throwing away all the lessons of an experience in long and successful business careers. Men who, in the employment of clerks, mechanics, book-keepers, stenographers and what not, would look solely to the qualifications of the applicants to do satisfactorily the work required, when they become members of the school board forget there is anything to do but look about and find some well-appearing, tolerably educated daughter of a friend or acquaintance and vote her into the school room. They forget that there is wanting the required scholarship, that they know nothing of the science of teaching, feel nothing of its responsibilities, and have none of its spirit.

Again, they are carried away with their kindness of heart and sympathy. A girl who has lost her father and is the sole dependence of a widowed mother applies. She has not been brought up to be self-supporting, but has been given a few useless accomplishments and blandishments. She has not a single useful attainment whereby she can earn a dollar. Should she apply for a position as book-keeper or stenographer, the business man, however kind-hearted and sympathetic in view of her need, would turn sadly away, but as she applies to him as a member of the school board, his sympathy blinds him to his sense of duty, over turns his reason, and he gives her the place. This school has ceased to be an institution for the education of children, and has become an institution of charity for the support of the impecunious and needy.

Sympathy is commendable, but it must not be misplaced. The sympathy that the school board member should feel above all other is sympathy for childhood. Never should sympathy for an individual, needy applicant deaden his sense of duty to that body of helpless children whose eternal interests are in his care and at his mercy. He is charged with providing the proper training for the child and giving him opportunities to develop to the highest those powers of intellect and heart that will permit him to become a self-sustaining and useful member of society, an

honest, upright, valuable citizen of the State. And the man who puts in charge of the school any but the best qualified teacher obtainable, regardless of the needy condition of any applicant, commits a crime against childhood, society, the State, and God. Poverty is not a qualification, need is not a qualification, neither is sympathy or pity a motive that may actuate in the selection of the teacher.

He who would discharge his duty must put the welfare of the school, and that alone, in the foreground. The child is the central figure in the school, and sympathy and love for the child and his interests is the only sympathy that is worthy, and that sympathy which would make one lose sight of the child is base.

Why is it that men will entrust the development of the intellect, the unfolding of the character of the child, the most important and at the same time the most delicate task on may perform, to the hands to which they would not entrust the training of a good bird dog? It must surely be because they have not realized that teaching is a work calling for special knowledge, special attainments, and special training.

When these facts are fully realized the cry of need, the plea for home talent, will fall on deaf ears, and there will be selected and retained only those who conscientiously and effectively perform teaching functions.

It must be borne in mind that it is difficult to retain the good teacher because she is in great demand, but that the poor teacher "sticketh closer than a brother," consequently the greatest care must be exercised in the selection. There is a text of Scripture which applies here: "The poor ye have with you always." They never resign, get married, or die, nor in many cases can they be dropped. Like that indifferent teacher with whom Dr. Parker remonstrated, who replied that she knew what she was doing; that she was there when others before him had come; that she had witnessed his arrival, and would be doing business at the same old stand when he was gone, they are eternal fixtures.

Let us trust that the dawn approaches when all con-

nected with the school will more fully realize their obligations, more clearly comprehend their duties, and that in the selection of teachers fitness for the place shall be the chief and the determining consideration.

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